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HANDBOOK FOR
HOME TEACHERS
OF THE BLIND

COLLEGE AND ASSOCIATION OF
TEACHERS OF THE BLIND

HANDBOOK FOR
HOME TEACHERS
OF THE BLIND



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PREFATORY NOTE.

THE Examination instituted in 1923 for Home Teachers by the College of Teachers of the Blind (now the College and Association of Teachers of the Blind) made patent the need for a book which would serve as a guide to that Examination and as a manual for much of the teachers' daily work. The Committee of the College asked their Examiners to act in the capacity of an Editorial Board, and the following compilation is the result of their labours.

The matter contained in the first edition has been revised and brought up to date, especially the chapter on Typical Cases. Chapters have been added on Work in Rural Areas, Prevention and Causes of Blindness, National Insurance, Suggestions for Teachers, and Home Occupations. An index has also been added as well as a Bibliography.

The Committee would here put on record their obligation to the Board and to the various contributors. They have also to thank the National Institute for the Blind for its generous help in accepting financial responsibility for the publication of the book.

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HANDBOOK FOR HOME TEACHERS

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTORY

By J. M. RITCHIE, M.A.

TO understand fully the present situation in any region of activity it is necessary to know something of the various stages of its growth. Not only so, but a clear conception of its gradual development is a valuable guide to the best direction for future advance.

The first steps towards making Home Teaching an organised part of the general care of the blind were taken in 1834 by the founding of the Indigent Blind Visiting Society, but probably Home Teaching in the sense of welfare-visiting and Scripture-reading is as old as philanthropic effort itself. Like the greater part of that effort, it was sporadic, unsystematized and entirely dependent on the personal factor.

The founders of the early institutions thought of their pupils as returning home after a few years' training. They were expected to work at the trade for which they had been trained but there

was no system of after-care. For many years it failed to be realised that these ex-pupils would require continuous and life-long assistance. The writings of James Gall, for instance, show that ardent advocate of schools for the blind as convinced that the blind would always remain a scattered community, and pleading for his books that they would bring the light of the Gospel into remote districts through the interaction of the blind pupil and his seeing teacher.

During the first half of the 19th century the multiplication and development of institutions continued to monopolise public attention as far as the blind were concerned, and the scattered blind were in danger of being forgotten. This accounts for the fact that when such people as Miss Graham, Dr. Moon, Miss Wainwright and Miss Elizabeth Gilbert rallied their forces in aid of the people of the Dispersion, their ideas were tinged with hostile criticism of the existing order of affairs. In their judgment the institutions were far from justifying themselves. A small proportion only of their pupils were able to carry on a successful fight. Adverse economic conditions were too strong for most. The training might be satisfactory, but the continuing supervision, which we now know to be essential, was lacking. Some of the Home Teaching Societies which were started about this time were therefore driven to develop Home Workers' Schemes as well, and it is interesting to note that two of the largest workshops for the blind in the country—

at Cornwallis Street in Liverpool, and at Tottenham Court Road in London—owe their origin to this sort of effort.

To the worker of to-day the progression from elementary school to training course, and from training course to workshop, is so familiar that it has the air of inevitability. Human development, however, seldom follows the straight line of logical advance, and it may be well to recapitulate, in order to make clear, the somewhat roundabout method by which the workshop came to its place in the economy of the blind world. The inadequacy of the schools made obvious the need of an agency to follow up the blind in their own homes. The experience of these agencies made patent the need for commercial as well as spiritual assistance. The Home Workers' Schemes that resulted led to a recognition of the fact that such schemes were a second best compared to the grouping of the trained and industrious blind in workshops under regular and specialised supervision.

As already mentioned, the Indigent Blind Visiting Society was started in 1834, and from the outset carried on home missionary work and the relief of distress. In Scotland missionary work was combined with a strong leaning towards the industrial side, and it is interesting to note that a comparatively large number of blind people were established as small traders. Handicrafts were also taught, and work was given out in knitting and other occupations. Since then a change has taken place, and although it is generally accepted

that in this age of specialisation Home Teaching Societies should not attempt industrial work, much more might be done in Scotland to-day in the way of teaching hobbies and pastime occupations.

In 1855 Miss Graham founded the London Home Teaching Society, which gradually extended its activities until it covered the Home Counties. Now, as a new era of development approaches, it has been broken up into its constituent county units. Until 1895 Moon was the type exclusively used in its work, and the Society thus showed in its early days a wise disregard of the other types then contending for popularity. In 1902 the number of blind persons under visitation in the country was over 5,000, half of whom were able to read embossed type.

The controversy as to whether home teachers should be blind or seeing began at an early date. A heated argument on this subject took place in a Conference of Workers for the Blind, in 1892. The feeling of the majority was strongly in favour of the employment of the blind, and pungent comments were passed on the Scottish societies whose teachers were almost all seeing people. Mr. Plater, of Birmingham, thoroughly scandalised by this state of affairs, moved a resolution in favour of the employment of the blind. The motion was seconded by Mr. Martin, of Edinburgh, and received the weighty support of Dr. Armitage, then at the height of his deservedly great influence. In favour of the blind it was argued that they were better at finding jobs for those they visited, that

they could track down new cases more easily than ordinary teachers, that they were quite as good as the seeing at teaching, and much better than they at arousing and maintaining the sympathetic attention of their pupils.

It would be out of place here to enter into this or any other controversy, but it may be thrown out as a personal opinion that too much has been made of the opposition between the seeing and the blind. The blind are handicapped, it is true, but it is doubtful if that handicap is sufficient justification for talking about them as if they were a race apart. The question before an employing agency is not "should this job be given to a blind man or a sighted man?" but "how shall we secure, out of all the applicants, the best man for the post?" That the setting up of any sort of competition between blind and sighted is to be deplored everyone will agree, and so a word or two may be offered in the hope of removing an unnecessary cause of offence. It may be suggested that one reason for the opposition is the superior attitude occasionally adopted by the blind themselves. In 1750 Diderot wrote his "Essay on Blindness" and described a conversation which he had had with a man who had been born blind. To the admiration of Diderot and of succeeding commentators he gave to the world this remarkable statement: "Were it not for curiosity I would as soon have long arms as sight. My hands would inform me better what is doing in the moon than your eyes or telescopes."

For the present purpose the confusion of thought in the first sentence may be ignored. The second is more to the point.

Here is a man who utters with bland complacency what he imagines to be an authoritative dictum, whereas he is really presuming to discuss a sense of whose very nature he cannot form the most rudimentary conjecture. He is not the only blind man who has ventured opinions on subjects of which he knew nothing, but all the same, it is a bad habit, either for the blind or the sighted.

One other point relevant to this matter may be repeated. Until recently the work of the home teacher was that of spiritual consolation and the teaching of Moon. Now the work is that of social welfare visiting and the name is, to some extent, misleading. It cannot be denied that this change is bound to have its reactions on the number of the blind who can find their most suitable métier in this service.

On the other side, it may be suggested for the consideration of those who have good sight, that it is unwise to form too many *a priori* judgments on the limitations which blindness imposes. There are other senses besides sight, and these may be wonderfully useful in supplying the deficiency when possessed by an alert and experienced visitor.

The years between 1900 and 1920 saw a steady continuance, but no phenomenal development, of Home Teaching. In 1917, for instance, the total

number of the blind under visitation is given at about 8,000.

A paper read by Mr. Frew Bryden at the Edinburgh Conference of 1905 made known to English workers that Scotland was completely covered by ten societies whose business it was to cater for the scattered blind, and England promptly set itself to imitate the example of its northern neighbour. Thus the seven Unions of Agencies came into existence. These differed from the Scottish in being associations of all the agencies for the blind in each Province, but they are mainly important for the impetus given to the discovery and supervision of the blind in their own homes. Thus they are closely connected with the problem of home teaching, and in the development of that work they and their constituent units, the County Associations, will have a great part to play in the years that lie immediately ahead.

One further item in the evolution of the present-day situation may be noted. The Home Teaching Societies not only taught embossed reading, but their teachers acted as distributors of literature, and several of the societies possessed substantial libraries. In 1916 the National Lending Library became free, and in the following year the London Home Teaching Society handed over to it its books to the number of 10,000 volumes. The gradual extension of the library must be a just cause for pride to the library authorities, and is certainly one for gratitude among the blind of the whole country.

In 1917 the Departmental Committee on the Blind, which had been appointed as a result of the debate in the House of Commons, initiated by Mr. Wardle on 11th March, 1914, issued its report, and in the same year a Central Department for the Blind in England and Wales was set up within the Local Government Board, which later became absorbed in the Ministry of Health, and a similar Department for the Blind of Scotland was established within the Scottish Board of Health.

Since that date, and because of the wise and energetic control centrally exercised, development in all directions has been exceptionally rapid, and nowhere has this been more the case than in the registration and supervision of the extra-institutional blind.

The increase in the number of home teachers since 1919 is an index of the change that has taken place. In the former year the number for England and Wales alone was just over 100, while now, in 1927, the number is close on four times that figure. The Ministry and the Scottish Board have not only exercised a skilful guidance as to policy, but have contributed materially to the efficiency of the work done by the payment of Treasury grants. Grants are paid to Counties Associations, and in respect of workshops, book production, homes, hostels, home workers and home teaching. The grant in respect of the last named is at the rate of £78 for each recognised teacher employed, and the amount of money paid by the Treasury for services

rendered during 1925-26 was £20,630 in England and Wales, and £4,229 in Scotland.

It is not surprising that with this financial interest in the work of home teaching the Ministry and the Scottish Board of Health should look for guarantees as to the efficiency of the grant-earning teachers. It must be considered a reasonable demand that the men and women who are now entering this field in such large numbers should submit themselves to some test of their capacity and attainment. In 1922, therefore, the College of Teachers of the Blind was asked to institute and carry out an examination for this purpose. It accepted the task, prepared a syllabus which received the approval of the Ministry and the Scottish Board, and held its first examination in May, 1923.

The examination has been established for the main purpose of providing a test, but its value does not necessarily stop there. Home teachers are practical men and women, and anything that smacks of the theoretical or of the academic arouses their suspicions. It is fatally easy to become attached to rule-of-thumb methods and to bolster up one's intellectual laziness by resort to hoary half-truths. Some of these are very old—quite mossy and overgrown. Perhaps the oldest of all is the statement that the teacher is born, not made.

It may be that such aphorisms do not do much harm. There is an element of contrariety in human nature, and so one of their effects is to

draw attention to the forty, fifty or sixty per cent. of truth which they ignore, and, by implication, deny. On the other hand, it would be idle to argue that such aphorisms do not have in them some element of truth. Every man is born to his job or he could not stick it. The doctor is born. He must have natural sympathy, a wise tact and a selfless devotion to his calling. A plumber, too, must be born. No one in the course of one short lifetime could acquire forgetfulness to the degree required by that high-minded artificer. The teacher himself is born, or otherwise he would flee in horror from his daily trials and seek a sheltered life in journalism or politics. But, and it is a large but, the doctor is not employed because of his tact, but because of his medical knowledge and skill. Surely it is not expected that a doctor should be able to track down a Klebs Loeffler bacillus by intuition. Again, the plumber is not employed because of his native power of oblivion, but because of his acquired characteristics with regard to the wiping of joints in lead pipes and other similar matters. The teacher, too, should be engaged not merely for his congenital love of children, but for his knowledge of the science of education and for his skill in the practice of its art.

Now, the mention of these two words, science and art, brings this discussion close to the crux of the matter. Home teachers are, as has already been said, practical people, and it is a weakness of practical people that they are inclined to under-rate the importance of the science of their own

particular subject. That is unfortunate. If they rely entirely on the experience of one day for meeting the difficulties of the next, they are like a man who is condemned to walk along a pavement bestrewn with banana skins and orange peel. His advance is precarious, and there is some danger that he will find himself in hospital instead of at home.

In home teaching, as in other professions, there must be a great store of information, a great body of doctrine, a synthesis of generalized experience which the wise and capable practitioner will carry with him at the back of his mind. To that storehouse he must make constant reference, and so bring the judgment of the profession as a whole to bear on his individual problem.

In a sense, this calling, as an organised profession, is young. It has to build up its science. The examination syllabus is a framework on which to build. The Handbook to which this chapter is an introduction is a further contribution. Year by year by means of lectures, articles and conferences, the structure will grow, and all members of the profession will take pride in its enlargement. Not only so, but the profession itself, without any external stimulus, will demand from newcomers both that they shall study that body of knowledge and doctrine, and that they shall be able to apply it to the detail of their daily needs.

So the profession will be assured that its members will be competent to discharge the difficult and troublesome tasks that lie before every home

teacher. They will be fit for their work because they will be masters alike of the science and the art of their calling. That is a prospect which cannot fail to appeal to every man and woman who has the welfare of the profession at heart.

CHAPTER II

THE SYLLABUS

By J. M. RITCHIE, M.A.

IN the early days of home teaching the work consisted mainly in reading the Scriptures to the blind, and, later, in teaching Moon and other types. Since those days the conception of the duties of the home teacher has widened so much that the term has become almost a misnomer. It is nearer the mark to think of him as a welfare visitor with additional knowledge on a specialized field of work.

The syllabus is intended to cover this particular domain. It is not likely to change much in essentials, but it will vary from year to year in detail. For this reason every candidate should make sure that he has a copy of the latest issue, and that he fulfils in every way the directions and instructions given.

As it is eminently desirable that every blind person should be able to read embossed print, unless such ability is precluded by age or infirmity, the candidate is required to submit to tests in Braille and Moon. The candidate has to write from dictation a passage in Braille. The punctuation is given, and any specially difficult words are spelt. Several disconnected words are also usually

dictated in addition to the passage. The little pamphlet called "Braille, Grades I and II," published by the National Institute for the Blind, price 2d., gives all the necessary information, but the candidate should practise writing from dictation so that the test will not take him unawares.

The candidate has also to read to the examiners a sheet of Braille and of Moon type. He should not attempt to read at a great speed, but should aim at an accurate and intelligent rendering.

Next comes that extensive territory of special and general information which in the syllabus is called Professional Knowledge. The name is not quite adequate, for it will be seen that some of the paragraphs into which it is divided refer to capacity rather than to knowledge; this section of the examination, therefore, includes several tests of skill and ability—that is to say, the application of the knowledge to every-day problems.

The candidate must give a lesson to a pupil in the presence of the examiners on one of the subjects which he has selected for his examination. He may be asked to give a lesson in writing Braille, in rushing a chair, or in any other subject, provided he has chosen it for his examination. In this test the candidate should remember that the examiners are looking for his skill in imparting knowledge or ability, and not for a demonstration of his own craftsmanship, which will be asked for under another heading. If, for instance, the candidate, asked to give a first lesson in pulp cane work, spends nearly all the time in himself making

a basket, he has completely failed to show skill in teaching, although he may have proved beyond disputing that he is a capable hand at the craft. The teacher must be able to put himself in the pupil's place, must remember the difficulties that so easily beset a beginner, and must have marshalled clearly in his mind the best suggestions and instructions for overcoming these difficulties.

The home teacher is not infrequently called upon to visit men and women who are deaf as well as blind, and so a knowledge of the deaf-blind manual alphabet and some facility in its use are essential parts of his equipment. The candidate is therefore asked to show his ability to speak with reasonable fluency on the fingers of a blind-deaf person. Attention should be given, not only to the simplest and clearest form of alphabet, but to the taking up of a position which should be comfortable and unstrained.

These two tests, the ability to teach and the manual alphabet, make up the practical section of Professional Knowledge. The following are grouped as the theoretical side of the same subject. The candidate has to submit to a *viva voce* examination on *case work*. A number of typical cases will be suggested, and he will be asked to explain how he would deal with each in turn. He will be expected to show the particular line of investigation he would pursue, the appropriate machinery he would call to his aid, and the measures he would employ to bring the utmost amount of relief, pleasure and assistance to bear on each of the

various cases. Chapter III should be a valuable guide in this connection.

The remainder of the section in the syllabus of Professional Knowledge (theoretical) forms the material for a two hours' written paper of questions. Candidates can give their answers in ordinary script, in typewriting, or in Braille. The greater part of this book has been written to assist the candidates in preparing for this paper.

Local directories must be consulted for information as to hospitals, sanatoria, etc., while the pamphlet issued by Gardner's Trust and entitled, *Information with regard to Institutions for the Blind*, should be carefully studied.

Lastly, since it is of great importance that blind people should, if possible, have some pastime to which they can turn for relief from tedium, the candidate is asked to show his ability in handicrafts. This should not lead to any confusion between what is expected of a craft instructor and what is expected of a home teacher. The former must be capable of teaching a trade, and it will be noticed that those commonly followed by the blind—basket, brush and mat making, flat machine-knitting and pianoforte-tuning—are not included in the list from which the candidate is to make his selection. If the blind person is to become a worker under a Home Workers' Scheme, or a workshop employee, he should receive his training from a craft instructor, preferably in an institution recognised by the Board of Education for the purpose. It is true that in some parts of

the country Home Teaching and Home Workers' Schemes are being run concurrently by the same personnel, but this is the mark and symptom of a transitional period, and both for the purpose of this examination, and for the future outlook, the two must be regarded as distinct. Home Workers' Schemes are commercial enterprises more akin to workshops for the blind than to the welfare supervision which is the characteristic feature of modern home teaching.

The syllabus states clearly what is required of the candidate in regard to this branch of work. He should possess a satisfactory knowledge of the tools and material used, including their prices, varieties, and where obtained. He should also be able to give, in outline, the course of instruction through which he would propose to take his pupil, and to demonstrate his practical ability by doing a particular bit of work selected by the examiners. The candidate is recommended to bring his own tools, as he might feel at a disadvantage if set to work with tools slightly different from those to which he was accustomed. He is usually given an hour or an hour and a half for this practical test, and the quantity as well as the quality of the work done is taken into account.

It is hoped that these few notes will assist the candidate in his elucidation of the syllabus, but it cannot be too often urged upon him that he should in no instance allow himself to be content with any interpretation of which he has reason to be in doubt. In all such cases he should at once com-

municate with the Hon. Registrar at the offices of the College, and ask for a clear and unambiguous ruling.

CHAPTER III

*TYPICAL CASES AND THEIR
TREATMENT*

By A. SIDDALL and W. H. TATE.

THE following series of cases ranging from infancy to old age is given for the guidance of home teachers, with an outline of the treatment suggested for their amelioration. Assuming each case to be seen for the first time certain preliminary enquiries will be applicable to all. Afterwards, more intimate knowledge of the individual's personality and environment will be necessary, in order to indicate the service best calculated to promote happiness and well-being.

The preliminary enquiries will deal with the cause of blindness, the age at which it occurred, the degree of vision remaining (if any), together with details as to personal habits, physical and mental activities, etc. In the case of adolescents, school records will be useful, while in the case of adults, previous occupations should be ascertained, as well as any circumstances that may have contributed to loss of eyesight.

With regard to home conditions, questions such as the following may be found helpful:—With whom does the blind person reside? What is the relationship (if any) between them? What is the

number of other inmates in the house? Are they kind, considerate and obliging? Do they render kindly attention by reading to him, keeping him informed as to the doings of the world outside, taking him to services, lectures, concerts, walks and other forms of physical exercise?

1. *A newly born baby, said to be in danger of inflammation of the eyes.*

The extremely dangerous character of "Ophthalmia Neonatorum," or "Inflammation of the Eyes of the Newly Born" cannot be too strongly emphasised. The attention of parents, midwives, nurses and others should be directed to the urgent importance, especially during the first week or two of the child's life, that its eyes should be carefully examined for any redness of the eyes or eyelids, discharge, swelling, or other signs of inflammation, and upon the slightest appearance of any such, the doctor should be immediately sent for. Failure to do this, or to carry out his instructions with the utmost exactitude may doom the child to lifelong blindness. Compulsory notification of this terrible disease is now obligatory throughout England and Wales, under the "Public Health (Ophthalmia Neonatorum) Regulations, 1926," and a further provision under Section 66 of the Public Health Act, 1925, empowers local authorities "to make such arrangements as they may think desirable for assisting in the prevention of blindness . . ." "Any expenses incurred under this Section by a County Council shall be defrayed as expenses for general

county purposes." Should a midwife fail to notify Ophthalmia Neonatorum she will be in imminent danger of being struck off the roll.

2. *Baby boy, 1 year old. A fine, healthy child of good parentage.*

In this case the parents have probably provided suitable food and clothing, together with systematic hours for feeding, exercise in the open air and rest. Attention should now be directed to providing opportunities for vigorous bodily exercise and the development of the lungs and voice. The companionship of seeing children should be secured, if possible, and in all respects he should be treated like a sighted child.

3. *Baby girl of 3 years. Delicate, undersized, and of doubtful environment.*

Enquiry as to any circumstances which may have contributed towards present conditions should be tactfully made, *e.g.*, whether adequate medical attention has been available, and taken advantage of; whether the mother has been so burdened with other duties as to have been prevented from devoting the necessary personal attention to the child. Admission to one of the Sunshine Homes at Chorley Wood, Herts, Leamington Spa, Warwickshire, or Southport, Lancs, should be strongly recommended, inasmuch as whilst residing there the child would receive suitable food, exercise, rest, the happy companionship of other children, also the further advantages of constant personal attention, and, when necessary, adequate medical attention and careful

nursing. Such a provision would, doubtless, be of great benefit to the child's growth and development, and might, perhaps, contribute to some degree of recovery of sight.

4. *A boy, 4 years of age, has manifested a tendency towards myopia, or near-sightedness.*

The attention of the parents should be called to the serious nature of such a tendency, and they should be urged to obtain the immediate assistance and advice of a duly qualified ophthalmic surgeon. Skilful examination of the child's eyes by such an expert will indicate the treatment that should be adopted to withstand the tendency and prevent further mishap. Neglect to secure such assistance or, when secured, to carry out with scrupulous care the instructions given, may have the most disastrous results. The use of books, games or pastimes that may involve eye-strain should be carefully avoided, as also visits to the cinema or picture house.

5. *Boy, aged 5 years. Healthy, active and energetic.*

Early admission to a residential school for blind children should be strongly recommended, in order to provide an adequate outlet for the increasing vitality of the growing boy. Apart from the benefit of physical development and skilled training under wise and watchful teachers, the joy of being with other children, of sharing in their games, singing, dancing and marching, contributes greatly to the happiness and well-being of a child of such tender years. As the education of a blind child

naturally takes longer than that of a normal child, he cannot begin too early to acquire the necessary training and developments. Should the parents hesitate to take advantage of a residential school for their boy, they should be recommended to visit a school for blind children, and see for themselves the activities, enjoyments and educational training of children of the same age as their own child. They should also be informed that the Education Act, 1921 (Sections 42, 51, etc.) contains the following enactment: "It is the duty of the parent of a blind child to cause that child to receive efficient elementary instruction from the age of five years."

6. *Boy of 10 years. Suddenly became blind whilst attending an ordinary elementary school.*

The first step will be to bring to the knowledge of the parents the provisions of the Education Act, 1921, relating to blind and deaf children, and also the responsibility devolving upon local education authorities for securing to such children within their area the full advantages of the Act. Particulars of the case should be forwarded to the Director of Education for the area, urging the importance of the earliest possible admission to a school for the blind. In the meantime the boy should be taught the use of the "Braillette" box, and of a few simple pastimes in bead-work, to quicken the sense of touch and prepare the way for exercises in finger-reading.

7. *An errand boy, 14 years of age, seriously injured in a street accident, is taken to hospital,*

where it is found that in addition to other injuries he has become blind.

This case will necessitate special attention, particularly during his stay in hospital, and for a time frequent visits (as he can bear them) will be useful for the alleviation of his sufferings and to enable him to regain a measure of his former courage and determination. A few simple games, such as dominoes, draughts and jig-saw puzzles might be introduced for his amusement, and to prepare his fingers for more skilful manual dexterity by and bye. The study of the Braille alphabet and the use of the "Braillette" box will also prove interesting and instructive. Upon his return home a wireless installation should be secured for him, and his former chums be encouraged to visit him and keep him in touch with the doings of the neighbourhood. In the meantime, however, the nature of the accident should receive careful investigation, and, if caused by the gross carelessness of another person, steps should be taken to secure adequate compensation.

8. *Girl of 15 years. Has a tendency to tuberculosis.*

The tendency referred to renders the girl unsuitable for admission to a school for the blind, and steps should be taken to obtain for her treatment in a sanatorium. The assistance of the Health Department of the local authority of the area in which she resides should be invited so that the fullest opportunity may be provided for securing her complete restoration to health. This

accomplished, education and training in a school for the blind should follow without delay.

9. *A youth of 16. Normal in all respects except recent loss of sight.*

The course to be recommended in this case will be determined, in some measure, by the youth's previous career, his scholastic attainments and his occupation since leaving school. In considering the training he should now undergo as a blind adolescent, due regard should be given to his temperament, aspirations and physique, as well as the environment to which he may have to return when the period of training is over. Under the Blind Persons Act, 1920, and the Education Act, 1921, public assistance is now available for such cases, through the education authority of the area in which he resides. Information as to the institutions or training centres within reasonable distance of his home should be afforded, together with particulars of the education and technical training available therein.

10. *A servant girl, aged 17 years, became blind as the result of an accident whilst engaged in her ordinary domestic duties.*

Enquiry as to the nature of the accident may be desirable in case the circumstances indicate that some compensation is necessary. In the meantime the education authority of the area should be approached and its assistance invited in order that she may be admitted to a residential training centre for blind females with a view to being educated and trained therein as a blind

person. In selecting the occupation to be followed during training, as a means whereby she may eventually earn her livelihood, regard should be given as to its suitability for the district in the vicinity of her home.

II. *Adolescent female, 18 years of age. Semi-blind, loss of sight due to ill-health.*

In this case enquiries should be directed in the first instance towards the re-establishment of sound health. Should assistance from the local authority or voluntary agency become necessary, its valuable and sympathetic co-operation should be invited. Subsequent treatment will be dependent upon the success attending the recovery, or otherwise, of health and eyesight, and may take the form of a semi-blind occupation in one or other of the ordinary industries of the district, or, failing such, as a trainee in an institution or workshop for the blind.

12. *A young law student, well educated and an accomplished linguist. Became blind by an accident whilst out shooting with a friend.*

Exceptional care should be devoted to this case in order to the discovery of the most prudent method of utilising the educational abilities above indicated. Should he be possessed of ample financial resources, and, at the same time, be of a courageous, self-reliant and resolute disposition, he might be recommended to continue his studies as before and become a lawyer. The late Henry Fawcett, at one time H.M. Postmaster-General, lost his eyesight under similar circumstances,

whilst still a young man. Notwithstanding this serious misfortune, he decided to continue the course he had previously marked out for himself as his future career, and with invincible courage and determination he accomplished his object. He became an authority on many public questions, an eminent statesman and a successful member of H.M. Government. The prime requisites for such a career are inspiration, courage, hard work, and the determination to succeed.

13. *A blind young woman, 22 years of age, well-educated, of pleasing appearance and good address, is wishful to obtain employment where her qualifications as an expert Braillist would be of value.*

If fond of literature and possessing literary talent the transcription into Braille of articles from the daily Press or other sources for insertion in one or other of the Braille magazines might provide a useful and congenial occupation. If exceptionally skilful and accurate as a Braillist, employment as a copyist at the National Institute for the Blind, or in connection with the National Library for the Blind might become possible. A knowledge of Braille shorthand and typewriting in addition to her other attainments, might enable her to secure a position as a clerk and typist, although such engagements are somewhat difficult to obtain.

14. *A young organist and teacher of music, 22 years of age, has recently become blind, but is anxious*

to continue in the vocation for which he has been trained.

In the first instance expert medical advice should be obtained as to the "cause of blindness," and whether the profession hitherto followed has in any degree contributed thereto. Should the medical report be favourable to the continuance of a musical career, additional training as a blind musician should be sought at the Royal Normal College for the Blind, Norwood; the College of Music, Henshaw's Institution, Manchester; or, if resident in Scotland, at the Royal Blind Asylum and School, West Craigmillar, Edinburgh.

15. *Young man, 25 years of age, has defective vision and is unable to obtain employment.*

Enquiry should be made as to the nature and extent of the eye defect, and whether treatment by an ophthalmic surgeon has been available. Failing such attention, the case should be reported to the Blind Persons Act Committee and to the voluntary agency of the area in which he resides with a view to securing adequate medical attention. Should the medical report indicate that the vision is seriously and permanently defective, he will be eligible for training in an industrial institution as a blind person, and the cost of such training, together with a reasonable sum for maintenance, will become the duty of the local education authority. On the other hand, should the eye defect be of a less serious character, and he become able to get about with safety alone, one or other of the following occupations might be thought desirable

and congenial, viz., newsagent, insurance agent, tea agent, poultry farmer, market gardener, pig keeper, small-ware dealer.

16. *Young blind woman, 25 years of age. Reported to be about to marry a blind man.*

The responsibilities of married life are sufficiently serious when each partner has the advantage of perfect eyesight, but when both are blind the potential difficulties presented are well-nigh insuperable. The upbringing of children of such marriages is affected by the inability of the parents to look after them properly, to see to their cleanliness, health and general well-being, and to exercise adequate discipline in the home. Apart from the responsibilities of parenthood, there are many matters in the administration of domestic affairs for which eyesight is absolutely necessary. Those who have knowledge of households under such conditions will be able to advise from their own experience and to point out to the young woman the serious nature of the step she is said to have in contemplation.

17. *A female school teacher, 28 years of age, became blind as the result of a nervous breakdown. After a time her health was restored, but not her eyesight. She is now wishful for employment.*

Should the duties and responsibilities of school-life have contributed to the misfortune above indicated, it will be necessary to consider a less arduous vocation as the avenue for future employment, but, if no such connection can be traceable, and health has become thoroughly re-established,

a return to the teaching profession may, under certain circumstances, become possible. In the latter case the assistance of the education authority under which she previously served would doubtless secure her admission into a college for the blind, and the attainment of the additional qualifications necessary in order to become an approved teacher in a school for blind children.

18. *A farm labourer, age 28, living in a country district, is no longer able, owing to the gradual failure of his eyesight, to fulfil the duties of his calling.*

This case should receive the helpful, sympathetic and resourceful consideration and aid of the voluntary association in whose area he resides. He should be encouraged and stimulated to attempt the carrying out of many duties in the home, the garden, the farm and the village *by touch*, aided by the recollection of former processes of a like character, when carried out by sight. The occupations of poultry-farming, market-gardening, pig-keeping, carpentry and cobbling have been carried out successfully by totally blind men, and many duties about a farm can be fulfilled with equal success if undertaken with patience, courage and determination.

19. *A married woman, 30 years of age, has recently become blind. She has a family of three children.*

The recent loss of vision, amid the cares and responsibilities of motherhood, presents circumstances of exceptional difficulty calling for tactful

sympathy, thoughtful direction and much continuous service. Many sightless women fulfil the duties incidental to house-keeping with marked ability, and every effort should be made to encourage this mother to emulate their example, to carry out the duties of her home and the care of her children with courage, energy and cheerfulness. The assistance of a kindly disposed and sagacious neighbour, able to come to the aid of her friend from time to time, especially in case of a sudden emergency, should be secured if possible.

20. *A married man, 30 years of age, has just completed training as a blind masseur, is fully certificated, and is desirous of opening up a practice in a large industrial centre.*

At the outset the friendly co-operation and assistance of the local society should be invited, in order that he may be aided in the selection of a suitable position for the reception of patients, and in the provision of the furniture and equipment necessary for the successful performance of his professional work. It is essential that the appliances, electrical and otherwise, should be thoroughly up-to-date, and, in this regard, the assistance of the National Institute for the Blind will be of value. During the earlier months, and until the practice has become established, some amount of financial aid will probably be needed and, if so, application might be made to the Gardner's Trust for the Blind, or the after-care department of the National Institute. With a view to obtain-

ing a measure of public support forthwith, the interest and influence of members of the Blind Persons Act Committee, of the local voluntary agency, and of members of the medical profession should be procured, if possible, together with an opportunity to work in the local hospital.

21. *A single woman, blind, 30 years of age, untrained, earns her living by selling lavender in the street. Lives with her mother who has the Old Age Pension of 10s. weekly.*

The occupation of a street hawker is a very undesirable one for a blind person, and in this case every effort should be made to discover a more interesting, useful and congenial source of earning a livelihood. The sympathy, counsel and personal influence of a discreet home teacher will be very necessary in order to secure the confidence, trust and friendship of the blind woman, and to wean her from what at times must have been a distasteful and unhappy life. The aid of the guardians and of the local society should be secured so as to provide an adequate maintenance, if possible, by the co-operation of the two bodies, and without subjecting the recipient to the necessity of attending at the relief station. In the meantime, however, the teaching of simple handicraft should be attempted and persevered with, full occupation and the joy of useful service being inculcated as the ultimate goal.

22. *An ex-soldier, 32 years of age, became blind some time subsequent to demobilization, and was, therefore, deemed ineligible for a war pension.*

This case is a peculiarly sad one, and it is to be feared, is typical of somewhat similar cases in various parts of the country. After having served throughout the Great War, and, on demobilization, been discharged to all appearance as medically fit to return to civilian life, and within two or three years become totally blind, is inexpressibly sad. In such cases full particulars should be submitted to the Blind Persons Act Committee of the area and its assistance invited. Particulars should also be forwarded to the Chairman of the Ex-Service Men's Fund Committee of the National Institute for the Blind (Capt. Sir Beachcroft Towse, V.C., K.C.V.O., C.B.E.), together with an application for a suitable grant.

23. *A blind basket maker, 34 years of age, well-trained and thoroughly competent, living 30 miles from the nearest Institution, is anxious to carry on his trade, but has no material, nor any place in which to work.*

This case should be reported to the voluntary agency of the locality, and its assistance invited towards the provision of a place in which to work (a wooden hut or a room in a disused building), and the supply of the necessary materials and appliances. Should a Home Worker's Scheme be in operation, an application should be made on his behalf to the Ministry of Health for recognition as an approved home worker, and upon the receipt of the approval of the Ministry an application for grant towards the "cost of equipment" of the workshop, material and appliances should also

be submitted. The voluntary agency should supervise his work, arrange for the supply of material, assist in the disposal of the finished articles, and provide a reasonable augmentation of his earnings as a blind worker.

24. *A professional gentleman, 35 years of age, married, in comfortable circumstances, except for the recent loss of vision.*

The earliest requirements are that the gentleman should be inspired with courage and fortitude to meet the new conditions, and with the belief that blindness may be regarded rather as a handicap than an affliction. This assured, he should be encouraged to carry on his affairs as before as far as possible. The study of Braille will be of interest, and opens up a wide field of literary advantage. Many blind gentlemen have rendered conspicuous public service as magistrates, members of county and county borough councils, education authorities and boards of guardians, and one of these honourable positions might be recommended for consideration. Various forms of recreation are still open to him, as riding, walking, rowing and swimming, gardening, bee-keeping, poultry-keeping, etc.

25. *A blind-deaf man, 35 years of age, residing with parents, has had no instruction as a blind person, and is unwilling to leave home for training in an Institution.*

This case presents exceptional difficulties and will entail much patient endeavour for their successful elucidation. At the outset it will be

desirable to ascertain the methods used by the parents when communicating with their son, and noting his response thereto ; endeavour to trace the mental process thus indicated. There are many duties in the home which a blind-deaf person can perform with ease, and should there be any such in which he takes delight, these might become the starting point from which to attempt further training. Following thereon, some simple occupation not hitherto attempted might be taught, by imitation, the teacher making the necessary movements with his hands, whilst the pupil, placing his hands upon those of the teacher, is led to notice what is being done. This operation having been repeated several times, the position should then be reversed, and the hands of the pupil, guided by the hands of the teacher, enabled to carry out the movements. Ideas indicated by signs should be the process adopted and, later, some attempt made to associate names with the objects touched. The study of the manual alphabet will, if successful, open up the way to further training, and render possible the attainment of simple handicrafts. The education of the blind-deaf is a serious task, but its successful achievement will amply repay the manifold services devoted towards its full attainment.

26. *A blind workman, aged 35, has had such frequent and prolonged periods of illness that the doctor forbids his return to his former employment at the workshop for the blind, and urges an out-door life.*

The possibilities of employment in the open air for a blind man are extremely limited, nevertheless, in circumstances such as the above it is highly desirable that a suitable occupation should be discovered if at all possible. The attention of the local society for the blind should be directed to the case and their sympathetic co-operation invited. The occupation of a tea agent is one that has been followed by the blind with considerable success in certain districts, and providing the society would be good enough to give the necessary oversight and direction, a good result might be secured. Should this occupation be found unsuitable, a newspaper round, a milk round, or a small-ware dealers round might be thought of. For the first few months, however, the worker should receive the utmost support and encouragement from the committee in his efforts to open up a connection, including, when necessary, some measure of financial aid.

27. A male adult, aged 40, has become blind in the course of his employment and asks for direction. He is married and has three children under 14 years of age.

As the worker became blind in the course of his employment it may be desirable to ascertain the name of the firm for whom he worked, and whether he has received or is receiving compensation or disability allowance. If in receipt of compensation he may be averse to undergoing training as a blind man, lest by so doing his disablement money should be endangered. The

importance and value of some such training should be urged, however, as apart from the advantages of a new occupation, certain approved societies, on being approached, are willing to consent to a period of probationary training without loss of benefits. Should additional income be required during such training, the assistance of the Blind Persons Act Committee and of the guardians should be applied for.

28. *An adult female, aged 40, is wishful for training and employment as a blind person, but resides in a rural area far from an industrial institution.*

Although residing at such a distance from an institution she may become associated with the voluntary agency of the area in which she lives, and thereby receive lessons from the home teacher of the district in various handicrafts that can be carried on at home. Of these, straw-bag making, rug-making and hand knitting are easily learnt, and, with diligence and application, chair-caning, rush seating and pulp-cane work can also be acquired. In due time she might become an "approved home worker," and thereby entitled to receive a supplementary payment as "augmentation of wages." In the meantime the agency would probably provide material to work with and receive back the finished goods for sale.

29. *A sailor whose ship was torpedoed during the war has gradually lost his sight and is now quite blind. He is 40 years of age.*

Should the sailor be in good health, apart from

his blindness, fully alert, vigorous and enterprising, it might be desirable that he should be established in some form of business as a tradesman. If tactful, courteous and obliging, he would doubtless obtain the ready support of friends and neighbours in the district where he lives, and might in due time become prosperous and well-to-do. At the outset, however, some capital will be necessary, and to provide this, the case should be taken in hand by the local society for the blind, and an influential appeal be made on his behalf to the local authority of the area, and to the County Association of Agencies for the Blind of that part of the United Kingdom in which his home is situated.

30. *The manager of a chemical works has been suddenly blinded by an explosion in the laboratory. He is 45 years of age, and much concerned as to his future.*

This gentleman should be encouraged to believe that when the treatment in hospital has to some extent alleviated the results of the accident, it may become possible for him to return to the position he formerly occupied, and to carry out efficiently most of the duties and responsibilities previously incumbent upon him. His intimate knowledge of the works and of the manifold processes of the business will enable him to direct the various departments with the same skill and acumen as before. A knowledge of Braille and the use of a typewriting machine will be valuable auxiliaries for business purposes, and an agreeable

means of recreation and enjoyment during leisure hours.

31. *A chronic invalid (male), aged 45. Totally blind and bed-ridden. His wife goes out to work to maintain the home. There are no children.*

In this case medical attention, nourishing food, nursing and visitation are chief requisites. If teaching to read by touch is practicable, the study of Moon or Braille should be attempted, also some light, simple handicraft as string bag making, or netting, with which to relieve the tedium of his long hours in bed alone. Steps might also be taken to provide a little rota of sympathetic visitors to keep him in touch with the daily life of the neighbourhood, some of whom might read interesting items from the daily press. A wireless set installed by his bedside, and within easy reach, would be a great boon. Since the passing of the Wireless Telegraphy (Blind Persons Facilities) Act, 1926, many such sets have been gratuitously provided for bed-ridden invalids by the National Institute and other societies for the blind, and have proved a source of inestimable benefit and gratification. The grant of a free licence under the Act to a blind person (not being resident in a public or charitable institution, or in a school) may be obtained on presenting a certificate of blindness to the local authority at the nearest post office.

32. *Blind woman, 50 years of age. Widow, with two children, a daughter, aged 19, earning 26s. a week, and a son, aged 15, earning 20s. a week.*

In this case the arrangements and duties of the

home should be carefully and tactfully ascertained. Should the mother have taken an active share in the work, prior to loss of sight, she should be encouraged to carry on such of the home duties as can be fulfilled without sight. A little steady application will enable her to surmount many difficulties and to realise with happy consciousness that she has still the ability to take a full share in the duties of the home. Active occupation is of the greatest benefit to the blind, and one or two simple handicrafts might be taught as a means of recreation and as a change from household duties. It should also be pointed out that under the Blind Persons Act, 1920, a blind person on attaining 50 years of age is entitled to receive a state pension of ten shillings per week.

33. *A workman, aged 54 years, recently lost his sight through illness, though previously in good health and full work.*

As an insured person he will be eligible to receive full sickness benefit from his approved society, and should any difficulty arise in securing this provision the circumstances should be immediately brought to the notice of the local society for the blind with a view to adequate attention and full payment being obtained. In the meantime an application should be forwarded to the Customs and Excise Office of the district for a blind person's state pension. Application should also be made for a refund of any sum that may be due to him in respect of former payments for Unemployment Insurance.

34. *An aged blind man, 73 years of age, living with married daughter.*

Special attention should be given to the health of the individual and the home conditions and other circumstances under which he lives. Are his relatives considerate, kind and affectionate? Do they seek to brighten his life by careful attention, sympathy and service? Are his friends encouraged to visit him and to take him out for walks, religious services, etc.? He will, doubtless, be in receipt of the Old Age Pension, but if an addition to his income should be desirable, an application on his behalf to one or other of the London Pension Societies would receive sympathetic consideration.

35. *Young woman, 23 years of age, blind and epileptic, the attacks becoming latterly more frequent and severe.*

In this case hospital treatment should be recommended forthwith, and urgent measures adopted to secure the immediate admission of the patient to the nearest voluntary or public infirmary.

CHAPTER IV

VISITATION AND SOCIAL WELFARE

By the late Miss CHAMBERS.

PEOPLE often ask: "What do you mean by home teaching?" and the heading of our chapter may serve to answer the question, for the home teacher must have at heart the well-being of the blind from infancy to old age.

We take for granted that the teacher has entered upon the work from *a sense of vocation*—nothing less will make the ideal teacher, and certain qualities would seem to be essential in this work. A real love for and sympathy with the people—tact—common-sense—good judgment—a sense of humour—untiring patience—all these are necessary, together with faith in the possibility of human nature.

This is not written to discourage aspirants to the work, which is one of great possibilities in the service of those so heavily handicapped, and great is the reward of the teacher in the trust and love of the pupil.

Given, then, the call, there are two main points which we may consider.

THE NATURE OF THE WORK AND HOW TO APPROACH IT.—It may help if we divide the blind population into the following classes:—

1. *The Child.*
2. *The Worker—in Institution or at home.*
3. *The Adult—living at home, and not engaged in trade or profession.*
4. *The Aged.*
5. *The Infirm—physically or mentally incapacitated.*
6. *The Destitute.*

We will consider first :—

METHODS OF WORK.

On taking up work, the teacher will go through the list of those to be visited, and will see that each case is duly entered, with all particulars, on the index card ; all visits will be written up each day according to the method employed by the particular agency.

The cases will be classified according to the frequency and nature of the visits—whether weekly, fortnightly, and so on. It will be noted if a lesson in raised type is to be given—or perhaps in some handicraft. It may be that a friendly visit is paid to cheer and read to the blind person. Where relief is given, this is accurately noted and reported upon.

It is well to adopt a simple method of keeping records of the visits paid, each teacher writing up her own cases on the case sheets provided, and filing them for reference at the society's office. The nature of the call may be marked by some simple symbol.

During a first visit a good deal depends upon the discretion of the teacher. It must never be

a case of forcing an entrance, for where a middle-aged person losing his or her sight is concerned, much sensitiveness and unwillingness to be considered blind will often be found, and frequently it will be considered advisable to suggest that it might be well to acquire the raised type merely as a preventive against eye strain. When the teacher has once gained the confidence of those visited, the rest is easy.

We will now turn our attention to *the different kinds of visits* to be made—according to the above classification.

I. *The Child.*

In the case of an infant in whom eye trouble is detected, should it happen—we hope this is not possible—that it has not been reported to the medical authorities, the teacher will at once take steps to that end. In some places there are hospitals where the child and mother can be received as in-patients, thus ensuring the constant attention which may save the sight of the former.

If the child, unhappily, has lost his sight, the teacher can often prove most useful, advising the mother as to the best methods by which to train the boy or girl to live as normal a life as possible. It is often found that, through mistaken kindness, a mother will over-protect the blind child, doing everything for him and sometimes not even allowing him freedom to run about. This only makes the child helpless, and there will be more difficulties to overcome when school time arrives. A child is never too young to be trained in good habits,

and, as early as possible, he should be taught to observe by touch. As far as possible, eliminate fear, and encourage the child to move about freely.

The teacher should see that the local education authority is in touch with the child, and that application is made in good time to the most suitable school. It does happen occasionally that the parents are opposed to a child leaving home, but such opposition can usually be overcome when it is pointed out that it is greatly to the advantage of the child to go to a school at an early age.

The teacher should keep in touch with school children during the vacations, and when the time comes to leave school careful watch should be kept to see that no unnecessary delay occurs before transfer to the technical school or other training centre.

2. *The Worker.*

When the young blind person has begun training for his or her career, the *active* supervision of the home teacher may be said to cease, but after-care is generally possible and always valuable, and a friendly hand is acceptable at most times—especially in the tight places in which most of us find ourselves from time to time.

It is important, to be sure, that when the young people are not able to live at home, a suitable lodging or hostel be found, and there are many kindly services that may be rendered by the teacher.

In the first visit to adults of working age the

teacher will note those suitable for employment, and should at once obtain application forms for the local workshop, and see that they are correctly filled in.

The teacher may also assist in the notification of adults who could become efficient home workers, but it should be clearly borne in mind that the care and supervision of home workers is not part of the duties of a home teacher as such.

3. *Persons living at home and unemployable.*

These form perhaps the greater proportion of the cases under the care of home teachers. It must always be remembered that a teacher goes, in the first instance, to teach, and where adults have lost their sight after youth, an earnest effort should be made to teach embossed type.

At first, difficulties may be raised—the pupil is nervous and easily discouraged—there is the very real difficulty of touch in work-hardened fingers—but it is astonishing what can be done with courage and patience. It is advisable to let the matter rest for a time, if learning to read is not a welcome suggestion. The teacher will read to the pupil and try to create an interest in the outside world.

Often the blind man or woman is profoundly discouraged, and thinks that life is over. This is not to be wondered at. After being an active member of the community, it is peculiarly hard to depend upon the good offices of others. If the teacher can effect intercourse between such a man or woman and other sightless people who

are bravely taking their place in the world, so much the better. Such contact helps immensely, and at once inspires hope. What *one* has done, *another* can do, and presently our pupil will be encouraged to place his fingers on the raised type. If difficulty is found in feeling the Braille dots, Moon type may be attempted: when that is mastered, a pupil may find his touch has become more sensitive.

Reading is an immense resource, and now that there is a special rate of postage for books in raised type matters are made easier *for the teacher*, who will change the books as often as possible, and, where suitable, will arrange that the expert reader shall join the National Library for the Blind.

It is most important that a teacher should encourage a person who is losing his sight to go on with his usual habits of life at home, as far as possible—this applies especially to women. Those who are unaccustomed to the blind are astonished at what they can do in the house. The ordinary domestic work, sweeping, dusting, washing, cleaning and cooking, has no terror for many of our friends.

It is invaluable to encourage this independence. Too often a mistaken kindness causes friends and relatives to perform every little duty for a sightless person. The ideal is to ignore the disability of blindness as much as possible.

At the same time, there are many practical ways in which the teacher can be of use—especially

in the case of the lonely. Blind persons are at a great disadvantage in that they cannot get about readily out-of-doors to do their own errands, and this often entails expense where such service must be paid for.

A teacher's eye will detect small jobs that need attention—a hole or a tear that can be mended while talk is going on. Perhaps the condition of the room may be bettered. All this comes within the province of the teacher—in fact, there is no end to the service which may be given. Letters may have to be written, and in case of sickness medical attention must be sought, and arrangements made for admission to hospital, if necessary—with convalescent treatment later.

4. *The Aged.*

Special care is needed, for their lot is often a hard one, living, as many do, alone in one room. Care must be taken to see that the Old Age Pension is applied for, and it may devolve upon the teacher to see the matter put through.

Where it appears that the blind person is not properly cared for, and the home conditions are not satisfactory, it is the teacher's duty to try to obtain admission to a suitable home, and to report the facts of the case. In many centres there are such homes where the lonely old folk can be received, but it is best of all when the aged can live with their children, under really satisfactory conditions.

A teacher may sometimes have to see that proper arrangements are made for the burial of

those lonely people who appear to have neither relative nor friend.

5. *The Infirm.*

These can be classified as *physically and mentally incapacitated*. The teacher should see that everything possible is done for these sufferers. Blindness is a considerable additional handicap in sickness, and if the invalid lives alone it is probably well to advise a hospital. When the invalid is with relatives, and good care and nursing can be given, the teacher should be given discretion to help financially, especially where extra nourishment may play a considerable part in the cure.

The value of the services of the district nurse cannot be over-estimated, and it is useful to know that the insurance societies will sometimes bear the expense. The case of a mentally-afflicted blind person is peculiarly sad, and, so far, little has been done for this class. It is usually difficult for these people to be cared for at home, and they are probably best in hospital.

6. *The Destitute.*

The care of this class of blind person presents a difficult problem.

There are the old and deserving, who undoubtedly should be helped to end their days in the maximum of comfort. For them there is the Old Age Pension, as we have remarked above, but this is not enough to keep a man or woman in any degree of comfort, and application should be made to the town authority or local society

when no other source from which the weekly ten shillings can be supplemented is available.

When the blind person resides with relatives great care must be exercised in ascertaining correctly the financial position of the home. This is apt to vary from time to time according to the local labour conditions, and it is wise to revise all cases for relief quarterly.

Under the Blind Persons Act it is expressly stated that guardians of the poor are not to be relieved of their duties, but as the local schemes for the care of the blind are barely in working order, the method of carrying out the provisions of the Act may vary in different localities.

It will usually be found that the Poor Law Authority is quite willing to co-operate with the local blind society in the care of the destitute blind.

Lists will be drawn up of cases for which responsibility is accepted by the guardians, and the home teacher, it is hoped, will be allowed to represent the applicant before the board, for personal attendance is often difficult in the case of blind persons. There are also cases which cannot be regarded as destitute in the strict sense of the word—cases in which the weekly income is quite inadequate and should be supplemented. Other resources must then be tapped. And we must look to the local authority responsible for the care of the blind and to voluntary sources.

The home teacher should be supplied with forms of application for regular relief where such

is necessary, and the local home teaching society usually has a special committee to deal with such cases. The forms should give all particulars of the case, with special regard to the financial position of the home. As we have suggested before, this is likely to vary from time to time, and a teacher must be careful to obtain as accurate information as is possible. This is responsible work, for it is a teacher's duty to see that relief is properly used. Where it is found that conditions are not satisfactory, a report to that effect should be made at once, and other arrangements for the welfare of the blind person should be made. If a recipient is ill and obliged to go to hospital, the grant will be discontinued and the circumstances reported. It may happen that the person in receipt of relief is not making proper use of the help, and, again, this should be notified at once.

We have been speaking of regular financial assistance, but there are many occasions when timely temporary help may avert disaster. There may be sickness with attendant expenses, or one of a thousand and one emergencies may arise, which a teacher must be prepared to meet. Fortunately they do not all arise at the same time !

For such occasions, a loan will possibly meet the case. At any rate, the teacher will report all the circumstances to the society's committee, suggesting what course it might be best to take.

In considering relief, mention must be made of blind mendicants, a class of person whom we hope to see removed from the streets, if only for

the sake of the rest of the blind population. It is probable that steps will eventually be taken to that end, but it is the teacher's duty to keep in touch with all such persons—not rendering financial assistance unless an undertaking is given to relinquish begging. In many cases it is unfortunately true that more is made by street mendicancy than can be earned at a trade, but there are cases in which professional begging would be gladly given up if an adequate weekly income could be assured.

It has been felt wise to give only a general indication of how the question of relief may be handled, because the whole matter is at present being experimentally worked out in this country, but perhaps enough has been said to serve as a general guide to the teacher.

Clothing often presents great difficulty, for there is generally a very small margin left when board and lodging have been paid. In a local workshop, a clothing club to which each member contributes weekly has been found useful, and something of this sort might be attempted by the home teaching societies. Cast-off clothing, in good condition, is also invaluable, for it is usually of a quality beyond the means of the blind to procure.

The teacher should be thoroughly conversant with the special *pensions* which are available for blind persons—such as Hetherington's Royal Blind Pension, etc., and should understand the conditions under which health and unemployment benefit can be claimed. A chapter on the general

welfare of the blind cannot be written without allusion to Gardner's Trust, which has so long looked after their best interests, and ever lends a sympathetic ear to any special cases that are referred to it.

This chapter has necessarily contained only an outline of what the visitation and general welfare of the blind may mean ; enough has, however, been written to justify the use of the word " vocation " in speaking of this work, and if, in this little survey, the subject has been treated from the point of view of a society working on a large scale, it must be remembered that, though it may not always be possible to carry out the clerical work as systematically as suggested, it is the personal work that counts, and be the numbers large or small, it is through that work that our blind people can be cared for lovingly and thoroughly.

One of a teacher's chief functions is to endeavour to bring out the best in the persons visited, and to help them to realize what powers they possess and how best they may use them in spite of their great disability. The work is not always easy—what work worth doing is easy? But there is no doubt about the opportunities of service which it offers to one who takes it up in the hope of bringing light to those who sit in darkness.

CHAPTER V

*THE WORK OF A HOME TEACHER IN
RURAL AREAS*

By Miss AUGUSTA M. FRIPP.

IT would be difficult to picture any class of people who have been more benefited by the passing of an Act of Parliament than have the blind people in scattered rural areas, by the passing of the Blind Persons Act of 1920.

Work for them being of a different nature from that which has been done in industrial centres, there is scope for much development on original lines ; and it will be some time before satisfactory methods can be found to cope entirely with the situation.

Two points of outstanding difficulty at once present themselves :—

1. The extreme isolation of the people for whose welfare the home teacher is responsible.
2. The difficulty of transport to their often, almost inaccessible homes.

How is the isolation question to be met ?

Clearly, one of the foremost duties of a home teacher is to arrange for the meeting together of the rural blind persons with those living in the nearest town.

By reason of their isolation they have probably

become self-centred, self-depreciatory, and despondent ; and their relatives, knowing nothing of the wider outlook and new fields of work now opened up for the sightless, are inclined to look upon them as hopeless problems—people who have to be housed, fed, and clothed, but from whom nothing is to be expected. From the first moment the teacher comes up against this difficulty and it has to be combated at once.

Minds move slowly in lonely places, and “ What *has* been, *must* be,” is the deeply-rooted belief. For this reason it is not easy to obtain permission to begin any teaching, whatever form that instruction might take.

Here we find the value of the country blind man’s contact with the more enlightened participator of town life. Before long the wish “ to do something ” is born ; and, once roused, this natural instinct grows rapidly. By this time the relatives have become accustomed to the regular visits of the teacher, and so all prejudice gradually dies down.

In passing, it is well to note that though regular visiting is *absolutely essential*, a surprise visit from time to time is equally advisable.

Having obtained permission to make a start, the next difficulty arises. There is no privacy.

To give a lesson in one corner of a farm kitchen, with the house-wife bustling in and out, carrying clothes to dry ; her husband in another corner plucking a goose and shouting instructions to the elder lad, who is digging potatoes just outside ;

while his sister, in another corner, endeavours to soothe a fretful infant to sleep, is no easy matter, either for pupil or teacher.

In suitable weather the difficulty is easily overcome by giving the lessons out of doors. On other occasions it is possible to make arrangements with someone in the village to lend a room for a trifling sum.

It is an excellent plan to enlist the interest of a sighted person—preferably a child—and teach the two together, whether it be Braille, Moon, or handicraft. Between the visits of the home teacher, the sighted pupil is able to help the sightless, and in almost every case a friendship is formed which is beneficial to both. This is true even when the sighted child belongs to the household, because so often the blind are left to live as separate members of the family, with no share in the general interests.

It is also helpful to get the loan of a room in the nearest market town, and engage it for market days. This forms a centre for the meeting together of blind persons scattered over a fairly large area. The relations are glad to bring them, and leave them for some hours in the care of the teacher. The time can be profitably spent in reading aloud ; and the blind members enjoy giving the recitations and singing the songs they have been taught previously by the home teacher. Every village holds its annual concert, and when it is known that the blind man can sing or recite, he at once becomes a popular and much-sought-after person.

Many farmers own motor cars, and are always willing to take blind friends to villages many miles away, where their singing and recitations are the feature of the evening.

Those who are the fortunate possessors of a wireless set are able to keep in touch with the world of to-day; others are entirely dependent on the home teacher for bringing a fuller and wider outlook into their lives. In such instances, it may well be within the power of the teacher to enlist help from those in more fortunate spheres and so obtain the gift of a wireless outfit for her charge.

It is helpful to encourage competition among those who have mastered any of the handicrafts taught by the home teacher. An exhibition of their work may be organised, or articles made by them may be entered for competition at the local shows. All this brings brightness, interest, and encouragement into their lives, and so gradually renders them more normal in mind and habits.

Little "outings" should be arranged at frequent intervals. It is good to learn how others live, and to take one or two town mice to visit a country mouse gives great pleasure, and is of much benefit to both sides. It does not cost a great deal, and the result fully justifies the expense. The country mice, in their turn, may be brought to town for a concert, lecture, or any suitable entertainment.

Encourage correspondence and exchange of views. All this broadens the outlook and widens the vision.

Train the blind in the knowledge of the country life which surrounds them ; the note of different birds ; the hum of insects ; the sound of wind in the trees, or the hiss of waves on the sea-shore, telling of approaching storm ; the tinkle of water running over stones, or the soft murmur, as it glides over moss and water-weed. Teach them to recognise each bush and tree by leaf and bark ; to know the way of the wind ; and the time of day by the sun on the face. They do not know the beauty of life till they have learnt these things—all these things—and much more. With the mind we see visions and dream dreams. Therefore, enlighten the mind, and by degrees raise it to a higher plane until, from nature, they reach to nature's God, and their trial of handicapped time vanishes in the realisation of a glorious Eternity with bestowal of fulness of vision.

To turn to the subject of occupations. In addition to the usual handicrafts the rural blind may be trained in country pursuits—some form of agriculture for the strong and active, that being the normal life of those around them. Endeavour to find a definite piece of work in the home, which is to be done by the sightless member of the family, and no other. Pumping and carrying water, chopping wood, gathering sticks and making them into large bundles, for which the neighbours are glad to pay (a tiny child is capable of acting as guide for this work). Carrying messages or executing shopping commissions is also profitable, and can be made a fruitful source of income by one

who is a good walker and strong enough to carry home a large basket of household commodities.

Should there be any points of interest in the neighbourhood, e.g., an old church, or the ruins of other buildings of historical value, the pupil should be carefully trained in all details of note, going over the ground till the memory can safely be trusted ; this provides an interesting and remunerative occupation for the summer months, at the same time laying the foundation of a desire to know more of the history of one's native land, and the works of great men and women of past ages. Knowledge never stands still. The more the teacher shows the more will the pupil desire to learn.

Wonderful openings occur when earnestly looked for. The great thing is to visualise the home life and surroundings of each pupil, and then grasp the work that is waiting for that one to do.

The aim of every teacher should be, not to encourage the blind to lead a special kind of life of their own, but to train them to slip into their proper place in the family circle, doing their own job, and bearing their share of responsibility—becoming a strong and useful spoke in the wheel of family life.

So far all looks hopeful ; but we are faced with difficulty number two, which is no mean factor in the work.

What means of transport can be found available to reach pupils in outlying country districts ?

At the outset, all who have tried to do this

kind of work realise that satisfaction can only be reached by the use of a motor car. Where possible, this should be provided for by the agency responsible for any particular rural area. Should a proprietary motor be out of the question, then arrangements can be made with a local taxi owner to undertake the work at a considerably reduced scale of fares. Failing motor service, 'buses will help on certain routes. Motor bicycles are also of great assistance ; the ordinary " push " bicycle is not very advisable for home teachers. Country roads are lonely, and have proved, in some instances, a source of annoyance, verging on danger.

Undoubtedly a motor, the property of the acting agency, is what should be aimed for in rural districts all over the country.

CHAPTER VI

*A MANUAL ALPHABET FOR THE
DEAF-BLIND*

By EDWARD EVANS.

THE main features of this system are based on the manual alphabet used by the seeing deaf, with certain important modifications.

The considerations to be observed are those which make for clarity, speed, directness and ease of manipulation.

Among the seeing deaf both hands of the "speaker" are used and the "speech" is read visually by the listener. In the case of the deaf-blind, the right hand only of the speaker is employed, while the left hand of the listener is the receiving or reading medium.

The first necessity is for the speaker to place himself in such a position as easily to work upon the hand of the listener.

It will be found that a suitable and convenient procedure is for him to take the listener's left hand, resting the back of it upon his own left palm. Care must be taken not to grasp the wrist too tightly nor to hold it in a strained or unnatural position. If the listener's wrist is gripped, serious interference with the circulation of blood is caused and pain and strain speedily ensue. It

should be made to lie easily and restfully with the fingers slightly spread out and fairly straight.

When a comfortable starting position is attained, the speaker can then write upon the listener's left hand with the same facility as if it were his own.

It would be as well to consider the receiving hand as a sheet of paper upon which the speaker desires to write certain characters. It will be obvious that the best results will be obtained when that hand is not called upon to alter its position.

No co-operation is asked for from the deaf-blind listener ; his left hand must be entirely receptive and passive.

As no characters are to be written on the back of the hand, it is therefore not necessary to turn it round. It must be remembered that it is only by proceeding at a good speed that this necessarily cumbersome method of *speech* can become acceptable to a deaf-blind person of average intelligence.

At the end of each word it is necessary only to make a slight pause. In the instructions with regard to the position of the various letters, it must be borne in mind that all the manipulations are carried out by the speaker's right hand.

The speaker should straighten his touching finger and tuck the other fingers out of the way when manipulation commences.

The vowels are written by touching the tips of the five fingers in order, commencing with the

thumb for "A," and finishing with the little finger for "U."

"B." The fingers are bunched so that the tips meet in an irregular ring, and placed in that form on the palm of the hand.

"C." The forefinger makes a circular flick along the inner side of the thumb and along the curve between the thumb and forefinger, finishing at the top of the forefinger.

"D." The tip of the forefinger touches the tip of the listener's forefinger, while the tip of the thumb touches the base of the forefinger.

"F." The forefinger and middle finger are placed close together at right angles across the forefinger.

"G." The fist is clenched and placed on the palm, with thumb in highest position and little finger on the palm.

"H." The hand is laid flat across the palm and moved upwards off the hand.

"J." The tip of the forefinger touches the tip of the middle finger and is then brought down to the palm of the hand.

"K." The forefinger is bent, palm turned down, and middle joint laid along the forefinger.

"L." The forefinger is laid across the palm.

"M." The first three fingers, touching, are laid across the palm.

"N." The first two fingers, touching, are laid across the palm.

"P." The tip of the forefinger is lightly held by the tips of the forefinger and thumb.

“Q.” The forefinger is placed in the fork between the forefinger and thumb, and hooked round the base of the thumb.

“R.” The forefinger is bent and laid across the palm.

“S.” The forefinger is bent and linked with the little finger.

“T.” The tip of the forefinger should touch the palm of the hand at side farthest from the thumb.

“V.” The forefinger and middle finger are separated as far as possible and laid across the palm.

“W.” The palm of the hand is laid flat across the fingers and the fingers bent over and round the fingers.

“X.” The forefinger is laid at right angles across the forefinger.

“Y.” The forefinger is placed in the joint between the thumb and forefinger.

“Z.” The tips of the fingers in a row touch the middle of the palm.

It is very desirable, when the subject has a good knowledge of Braille, that every advantage be taken of the means of using abbreviations. In the list of abbreviated words given in the Handbook of Braille it will be found that nearly all can be used and readily understood. The single letter contractions in Braille may also be used, especially when the deaf person is above the average intelligence.

In actual speech it will be found that long words

need hardly ever be finished when used more than once in the same context ; particularly so is this the case in names of places.

Everything, however, depends on the receptivity and response of the deaf-blind subject.

By far the greatest cause of faulty work is unnecessary movement combined with careless manipulation.

Ability to *receive* is not generally required, unless the deaf subject is also a mute, but ability to read the manual is a great aid to dexterity in writing it.

There are cases, of course, when it is necessary for the teacher to have to read, and in these cases much practice is needed to enable even a reasonable speed to be attained.

CHAPTER VII

HYGIENE

By J. J. BUCHAN, M.D., D.P.H.

HYGIENE is a subject dealing with the preservation of health and the prevention of disease. Personal hygiene teaches the individual how to safeguard his own health ; household, or domestic, hygiene tells how healthy conditions in the home can be maintained, while public hygiene, or public health, deals with the steps that the community should take to protect the health of the people.

PERSONAL HYGIENE.

I. *Food* is necessary for the growth of the body, for the replacement of waste, and for the production of energy and the maintenance of heat. In order to attain these objects our dietary should contain in proper proportion a variety of constituents, five in number, named : proteins, carbohydrates, fats, salts and water. Proteins are present in large amount in meat, poultry, fish and eggs, in less amount in peas, beans and lentils, and in still less amount in oatmeal, flour and bread. Proteins contain the chemical element, nitrogen, and are sometimes known as the nitrogenous foodstuffs, and they are chiefly concerned

in building up the substance of the body and replacement of waste.

Carbohydrates are present in large amount in potatoes, sugar, rice and other starchy foods, and in flour. They contain carbon, hydrogen and oxygen, and by their further oxidation, or burning, in the body, they form the chief source from which energy and heat are rapidly produced.

Fats are obtained chiefly from butter, margarine, dripping, the fat of meat, and the like. The fats contain a larger proportion of carbon and hydrogen and less oxygen than the carbohydrates, and form a storehouse in the body from which energy and heat may be supplied.

The chief salt in the dietary is common salt, or chloride of sodium, but salts containing lime, iron and phosphorus are also especially necessary for body building.

Vitamines are certain substances contained in fresh foods and vegetables whose absence from the dietary appears to cause certain diseases, e.g., rickets, scurvy and some nerve diseases.

Sufficient of all the above substances must be present in the dietary. An adult requires in the twenty-four hours roughly about 4 ozs. of proteins, 18 ozs. of carbohydrates, 2 ozs. of fats and 1 oz. of salts, and although this proportion varies a little under different circumstances of exercise or work, it cannot be seriously departed from without injury to health. Age influences both the amount and the proportion of the necessary food constituents, the child, because of its more rapid bodily

growth, requiring relatively more proteins. No article of food except milk contains these constituents in proper proportion. For the adult, indeed, milk would be to some extent deficient in carbohydrates, and in any case, milk alone would be much too expensive. In infancy human milk is nature's perfect food, and for this, the milk of the cow, or any other animal, is, although the best, only a very poor substitute.

Cow's milk contains about 4 per cent. of proteins, 4.5 per cent. of carbohydrates and about 3.5 per cent. of fats. Milk is a food especially liable to contamination, and particularly in towns is difficult to obtain clean and pure. Milk very frequently gives rise to disease, tuberculosis, diarrhoea and infectious diseases like enteric fever, scarlet fever and diphtheria. To protect against these the best measure is boiling, although this, if continued, destroys the vitamins. Milk must be handled with scrupulous care, and kept in clean covered vessels in a cool place.

Food requires cooking to render it palatable and more easy of digestion. Almost all forms of cooking of meat involve some loss in food value, but slow stewing in a closed vessel is probably the most economical.

2. *Teeth.* Food in the course of digestion is intimately mixed up with secretions or juices in the mouth, stomach and alimentary tract. The more completely the food is broken up, the more easily can these juices prepare the food for digestion. It is therefore of great importance in

aiding digestion that chewing should be thorough and complete. This is impossible with faulty or painful teeth, so that the condition of the teeth is of the utmost importance to health. Teeth, if kept clean, will not decay ; cleansing by brushing removes small particles of food which lodge about the teeth and by their decomposition set up decay of the teeth. A tooth brush, to do this effectively, should be fairly stiff. The brush need not be used with a tooth paste, but the brush itself should be regularly cleansed. The most important time for tooth cleansing is in the evening before going to bed. Certain foods themselves tend to cleanse the teeth naturally because their harder consistence demands more chewing ; for example, raw apples, carefully chewed, are more effective in cleansing teeth than any tooth brush. Soft foods are a great cause of decay of the teeth. A single decayed tooth contaminates the mouth and gives rise to decay in unaffected teeth. Regular dental inspection and treatment by a dentist is, therefore, most necessary.

3. *Alimentary Habits.*

a. Drinking. The only fluid necessary for health is water, which should be taken in proper amount from infancy to old age. It ought to be pure, and should be taken chiefly in the intervals between meals. When taken in too large quantities with meals, it dilutes the alimentary juices and thereby delays their action in digestion. Water flushes the kidneys and the alimentary system and helps to wash out waste materials

from the blood. Water should be taken at the beginning and end of the day. Tea and coffee are refreshing and stimulating beverages, but the former, when badly made, contains tannin, which retards digestion. Tea freshly infused contains but little of this substance. Tea is unnecessary for the young. Alcohol as a beverage is unnecessary at all ages and is harmful to the young. Its use as a beverage should be discouraged in all circumstances.

b. Regularity. The times and amount of food taken require careful attention if health is to be preserved. The most important organ to be considered is the stomach. Under normal conditions protein takes about three hours for digestion in the stomach ; if, however, this organ is over-distended with food, the whole process is delayed, and when this condition is repeated, illness follows. Digestion in the stomach should be completed before a second meal is taken ; food should, therefore, not be taken more frequently than at intervals of three or four hours. Food should be taken in such amounts as to allow free action of the stomach in digestion, and at such fixed times as will enable the stomach to complete digestion and give it a short period of rest before the next meal. All substances taken in as food cannot be digested. The alimentary system rejects certain portions as waste and throws out certain secretions which aid alimentary action and are not subsequently absorbed. To maintain a proper action of the alimentary system, all waste mate-

rials should be discharged from the alimentary canal once a day, as otherwise fermentation takes place and poisonous products are apt to become absorbed. Regularity both in the intake of food and the discharge of waste from the alimentary system is essential to health. The whole alimentary canal is concerned in one process, and any bad habits affecting one part of the system soon begin to affect all the other parts of the process.

4. *Clothing* prevents the too rapid loss of heat from the surface of the body and serves to protect parts of the body against injury. It is also largely used for decorative purposes and æsthetic reasons not coming within the scope of hygienic requirements. Other things being equal, the loss of heat from the surface depends upon climatic conditions, and clothing at different seasons of the year should, therefore, vary in amount and kind. The materials used for clothing should be bad conductors of heat ; they should have some power of absorbing moisture and they should be permeable to air. Wool is the chief material used in cold and temperate climates, and it fulfils these conditions admirably, being a bad conductor of heat, absorbing moisture readily, and allowing air to pass through. Silk, though less absorptive of moisture, is also a good article of underclothing, but it is much too expensive for general use. Cotton and linen both conduct heat fairly readily, and should only be worn for the purpose of heat protection when the external temperature is high. Cotton absorbs moisture

readily and is permeable, but it also retains odours somewhat strongly. The relatively high power of heat conduction by cotton is materially reduced by the imprisonment of air in the cotton yarn in the process of weaving what is known as "cellular underclothing," but even in this the heat protection value is below that of a woollen fabric. Clothing should be made to fit the body; the body should never be compressed so as to fit the clothing. Clothing should so fit the body that free movements are in no wise restrained, and it should never fit the body so closely as to interfere with circulation. The clothing of children, especially, must always be easy-fitting. The outer clothing in the colder weather should be of wool; waterproof clothing should not be worn unless it permits of the passage of air through it, as in some of the "rainproof" cloths. In summer weather outer garments may be of cotton and of a white colour, as this colour causes the garments to absorb less heat. Clothing should be sufficient but not excessive in amount, as excessive clothing engenders lassitude and renders the wearer more liable to illness. Clothing should be fairly evenly distributed over the body and limbs, the practice of leaving large areas of the legs and arms in children quite uncovered and of leaving large areas partially uncovered of the chest, arms and legs in women is to be strongly condemned. Boots and shoes fail chiefly by fitting badly, preventing free movement of the toes and ankle. Most foot deformities are the result

of such defective footwear, and they chiefly arise in childhood and adolescence. Too high heels alter the balance of the body, affecting the gait, and at the same time throwing the foot of the wearer forward into the toes of the shoe.

5. *Cleanliness* of the skin and clothing is a primary requirement for health. One of the chief methods of regulating body temperature is by perspiration through the skin, the varying activity of which can increase or decrease the loss of heat. The waste products excreted in perspiration dry on the skin and interfere with its function. The removal of the waste products, together with the dust particles and skin débris collected should be regularly and effectively carried out by soap and warm water. This applies to the whole surface of the body, particular attention being paid to those parts most liable to be foul, the armpits, the folds of the skin under the breasts in women, in the groin, and between the buttocks. The skin after cleansing must be carefully dried. Powdering is unnecessary. The exposed parts of the body, the hands and face, require more frequent cleansing, and the hands should always be washed before meals and immediately after exposure to any possible contamination. The hair, especially in girls, requires careful attention from its liability to harbour vermin. It should be carefully combed and brushed daily and washed frequently. At least 10 per cent. of the older girls in elementary schools have verminous heads.

6. *General Habits.*

a. Exercise is necessary to maintain the condition of the muscles, to help the action of the heart in the circulation of the blood, and to aid in the excretion of waste products through increased respiratory action and the action of the skin. It is especially necessary for the growth and development of the child. Exercise should be sufficient in amount, but it should stop short of either strain or fatigue. If either of these arises, any benefit from the exercise will be lost. Exercise should always preferably be taken in the open-air, and it should of itself afford sufficient interest to encourage the person to continue without a conscious effort of the will. From an hygienic point of view walking is probably the best exercise of all for the adult.

b. Sleep is a period of unconsciousness in which the body and mind are at absolute and complete rest. It forms the chief time of recuperation of physical and mental power, and is therefore essential to life. The need for sleep varies considerably at different ages in life, the child requiring much more than the adult. A pure atmosphere in the sleeping room gives a much higher restorative value to sleep, while sleeping in the open-air has the highest value of all. One of the commonest health faults both in childhood and in adult life is insufficiency of sleep in ill-ventilated rooms. Sleep comes more readily if no mental or physical work is done half an hour before retiring, if food has not been taken for three hours, and if before

going to bed there is a certain degree of surface warmth. Sleep should come as the natural result of moderate fatigue and quietude of mind and absence of any kind of physical discomfort ; the use of any drug to induce sleep is a pernicious habit, for a sleep thus induced is of relatively small recuperative value.

c. Morals. There is a close relationship between the mental and moral outlook of the individual and his personal health. Fortunately amongst the blind, peculiarly enough, there is often an insistent optimism which reflects favourably on their physical condition, but when it has not developed, this attitude of mind should be carefully cultivated as one of the assets of health. More important perhaps than the psychological effect of the mind on health is the standard of moral conduct, for if this is low, a continuance of good health is unlikely. This is generally true for all aspects of morality, but it is especially true for those which deal with sex. Grave dangers to health arise from any deviation from the moral code in this matter, and it is now well recognised that self-control is the only safeguard which can be adopted. Want of self-control or self-control undermined by the influence of drink, ignorance and inexperience, are the great causes of the spread of venereal diseases, from which much sickness and death, as well as misery, arise.

7. *The Occupation* of the individual should govern largely his personal habits. If indoor and sedentary, a larger amount of outdoor exercise is

necessary to maintain health. His recreations should call chiefly upon those physical and mental powers least used in his occupation. Certain occupations are more liable than others to give rise to certain forms of ill-health or disease, and should not be undertaken by those with any predisposition to these forms. Thus a dusty or an indoor occupation should not be followed by the bronchitic, or severe mental work undertaken by the nervous or epileptic, or outdoor work in all weathers by those addicted to lumbago or rheumatism. Certain trades and employments have their own diseases and deformities, and these have to be counteracted by appropriate measures, of which the most important is attention to the general laws of hygiene maintaining the general health at all times at a high level.

HOUSEHOLD HYGIENE.

1. *The House* itself should be situated so that a free circulation of air about the dwelling is possible ; it should not be too exposed, and it should be in a salubrious neighbourhood off the main streets to afford quietness. It should be set upon clean and dry soil, and must be properly drained and provided with a good water supply.

The walls, especially the inside of the walls, should be dry. This is best attained in hollow-built walls provided with what is known as a damp-proof course, an impervious layer set in the brick work of the walls just above the ground level. The roofs must be quite raintight, and

surface water from the roof and surrounding land must be safely conducted away from the foundations of the dwelling. The construction of the house should be such that it can be flooded in every corner with fresh air and light, and this can only be obtained by having two opposite sides of the house free. Back to back houses in rows do not fulfil this requirement.

2. *Ventilation.* Living rooms should not be less than 8 feet high, nor is it advisable for them to be more than 10 feet high, as too high rooms are difficult to keep warm and the additional air space above is of no value for ventilation. The free circulation of air from the outside into living rooms is essential to health, to get rid of the products of respiration and to supply the stimulating properties of moving fresh air. Each person in a room requires 3,000 cubic feet of fresh air per hour to preserve health, and if this is to be supplied without the discomfort of a draught, appreciable openings from the outside into the rooms must be maintained. This can be best arranged and governed by sashed windows, for even the small opening will provide a good inlet of air when they are slightly raised or lowered. Before going to sleep in a bedroom, the windows should be so arranged as to provide for the free entrance of the air. Air usually leaves the room by the chimney, and a room provided with a fireplace is easily ventilated. If there is an open fire, its suction power can draw enormous quantities of fresh air into the room. A small fire

even in summer in a sick room is therefore advisable. When there is no fireplace, special air outlets should be provided high up in the outside wall, as foul air is warmer and lighter than fresh air, and rises in order to escape from the room.

The air of a room cannot be readily changed more than five or six times per hour without causing a draught ; each person should therefore have at least 500 cubic feet of space in a bedroom, although the usual standard for overcrowding is taken as 300 or 400 cubic feet per person. As rooms should not be more than 10 feet high, each person in a bedroom should have a floor space of 50 square feet, or according to the usual overcrowding standard, 30 or 40 square feet.

3. *Cleanliness* of the home can only be satisfactory when the floors, walls, and ceilings are sufficiently smooth. Broken floors or broken plaster mean dirt. Dirt harbours disease germs, and the cleanest home is usually the most healthy one. Dirt and dust should be removed regularly from the home. Much of the cleaning and dusting usually done is a mere disturbance of dust, which resettles when the dusting is finished. Cleaning and dusting should be done with damp cloths, so as to prevent the dust rising. Vacuum cleaning is ideal, but only possible in a few homes ; there are, however, many sweepers on the market which do not raise dust. All floors should be of wood, and uncovered floors should be washed as often as is necessary, with the aid of two or three pails

of clean water, so that at the end of the process dirty water is not simply being allowed to dry on the floor. In a dirty house curtains and hangings are highly potential sources of danger to health, fanning the dust in the room with their every movement, gathering to themselves dirt which they spread about when they shake.

A most important point in cleanliness is the immediate disposal of all waste and refuse. After a meal the food should be removed, the table brushed, and the waste particles collected and burned. Vegetable waste such as potato-peeling, tea leaves, or cabbage leaves, should be carefully collected and burned, and should not be allowed to remain about the kitchen. Waste bread should be preserved in special receptacles for re-cooking as puddings. Waste fat should be heated, and gathered in special jars for re-use. It should never be put down drains which it would gradually choke. Bones do not become useless for food purposes until finally boiled into soup, and until then should be kept under cover from flies. All waste food materials which cannot be used or burnt should at once be removed to a covered dustbin.

Cleanliness can only be attained by regular and systematic cleaning and the immediate disposal of all dirt and waste.

4. *The Keeping of Food* is an important matter in hygiene. Each article of food should have its own place in a food store, one article not being allowed to taint another. Cleansing materials,

paraffin oil and the like, should not be kept together with food.

A food store should be cool, placed preferably on the north side of the house, or in a cellar. It should be well ventilated, but the ventilating openings should be covered with a fine wire mesh to prevent the entrance of flies. The food itself, especially milk, butter, margarine, cheese, fish and meats should be covered with clean muslin so as to prevent dust settling upon it, but not so as to exclude air. Any food decomposed, or tending to decompose, should be at once removed from the food store, and if thought advisable, thoroughly cooked or otherwise made use of, or burned. Tinned foods should be consumed at once after opening, and unused tinned foods should not be kept in a food store. Tinned foods before being opened should contain no air, and the top and bottom of the tin should each show a slight but well marked concavity.

5. *Water Supply and Sanitation.* In each house water should be laid on from the town's mains. When this is not possible, it should be obtained from a deep well, the surroundings of which should be free from all drainage and other nuisance. Spring water is usually good ; water from rivers and streams usually bad. All water suspected of contamination should be boiled before use.

The house should be provided with a slop-stone, or sink, which should be carefully and frequently cleansed. This slop-stone, or sink, should be opposite an outside wall ; it should be well lighted

and drained, and the drain should discharge over a gully outside. This gully marks the end of a U or siphon trap to the drain, and is occasionally choked by stones or *débris*. This *débris* should be removed by taking the grid off the gully and scooping the stones or *débris* out with the hands or a scoop. Pushing poles or steel rods down a gully simply breaks the gully at the bend of the U without removing the obstruction. To prevent *débris* or refuse, such as tea leaves in emptying a teapot, entering the gully, the sink should be used with a fine wire drainer which catches the refuse and from which the refuse can be readily removed and burned.

The waste pipes from lavatory basins and baths similarly discharge over a gully, but the waste pipe from a water-closet runs direct into the drain. A water-closet must therefore have a sufficient water seal, and a flushing rim, and it must be provided with sufficient head and quantity of water to cleanse the basin when flushed. The water-closet cistern should not overflow through the overflow pipe. This arises from defects in the ball tap and causes dampness of the wall. The drain pipe should pass immediately through the wall to the waste pipe, which should be continued up as a ventilating shaft above the eaves of the building. Special attention should be given to the use and cleanliness of all water-closets. If, from any cause, a water-closet cannot be provided in a house, a dry privy ashpit or earth closet is a substitute, but this must not be too near the

dwelling, and it must be regularly and thoroughly emptied and cleansed. The drainage system of a house should be tight, and permit no leakage either into the house or into the earth surrounding the house. House drains should be ventilated—that is, there should be an inlet opening just before the drain joins the sewer, and an outlet opening usually provided by the ventilating shaft of the water-closet, the circulation of air through the drains being thus provided for.

6. *Lighting and Warming.* Each room in a house must be provided with a sufficiency of window space for natural lighting, opening directly to a free space outside. The area of the windows should be at least one-twelfth of the floor area. The sun's rays are a powerful germicide, and should be allowed to enter the room freely. The best agent for artificial lighting is electricity. Coal gas is an exceedingly dangerous compound, and all gas fittings, especially in bedrooms, should be overhauled from time to time. The warming of rooms is best carried out by open fires, as these throw out heat by radiation in the same fashion as the sun heats the earth ; at the same time they form a very efficient method of ventilation. The objections to open fires are that they are inconvenient and dirty, are wasteful, irregular in heating value, and a chief source of smoke in the atmosphere. In many modern fireplaces these objections are to some extent met, while the greater cheerfulness and comfort of the open fire and its relative economy as against gas and electricity

for both cooking and heating, form advantages which are not easily outweighed.

PUBLIC HYGIENE.

In every area of the country it is the duty of some local authority to take steps to preserve the health of the people. These authorities are in different cases called town councils, urban district councils, or rural district councils. They make arrangements to supervise the housing conditions of the inhabitants; to maintain sewers; to prevent nuisances either from drainage, sanitary conveniences, uncleanness, overcrowding, or other cause; to attend to scavenging and the cleansing of streets in the area; to ensure the provision of a pure water and pure food supply; and to keep the district as free from infectious or other diseases as possible. They frequently maintain hospitals and other institutions themselves, especially for infectious diseases and tuberculosis, and contribute to others maintained by voluntary subscriptions for the benefit of the inhabitants of the area.

The local authority in these matters acts through its officers, of whom the medical officer of health is the principal one concerned. To this officer should be sent all complaints on any matter affecting the health of the people in the area, and on this and many other matters he is often able to afford valuable assistance. It is a duty laid upon certain persons to notify the medical officer of health of some circumstances or

occurrences. These latter chiefly relate to infectious disease, but now in all areas notification of births is in operation with the object of early instruction of mothers on infant welfare. The health arrangements for school children are under the supervision of the school medical officer, who is in most districts also the medical officer of health. He is especially interested in the physical welfare of children attending special schools, such as blind or myope institutions. Births, in addition to being notified, require to be registered with the Registrar of Births in the district.

MEDICAL ASSISTANCE.

Medical assistance may be provided in the patient's own home, or in hospitals or other institutions :—

a. At the patient's own home a private practitioner may be called in to attend. This practitioner may be (1) conducting a purely private practice and charge at certain rates per visit, or he may be (2) a panel practitioner contracting to attend the patient for all illness in his home in return for an annual payment under National Health Insurance, or he may be (3) a district medical officer under the Poor Law, who contracts to attend the poor in return for a certain annual payment by the guardians. In the first and second cases the practitioner is asked to attend by, or on behalf of, the patient, but in the third case he is directed by the guardians to do so, and application for his services may

have to be made to the relieving officer of the district. The acceptance of Poor Law medical attendance does not involve the same civil incapacity that the acceptance of other forms of relief involve, but its cost may, in appropriate cases, be recovered by the guardians. In addition to these forms of medical attendance at the patient's own home, certain forms of nursing attendance are provided by voluntary nursing associations and the like; while attendance by midwives, health visiting and nursing in certain cases are provided frequently by visitors and nurses employed by local authorities.

b. Hospital and other institutional medical assistance may be provided by the voluntary hospitals, which are either general in character, treating every variety of disease except infectious diseases, or special hospitals, as for example, eye hospitals, children's hospitals and the like. Voluntary hospitals also usually provide outdoor departments to which patients seeking admission to the hospitals come, and where, if they are not thought likely to require indoor treatment, they may be treated as outdoor patients. A patient seeking admission to a voluntary hospital is usually required to provide a certificate from his private practitioner that he is a suitable case for admission, and, occasionally, a recommendation from a subscriber or a society subscribing to the hospital. Voluntary hospitals are usually particularly well-equipped and well-staffed institutions. Hospital accommodation is also provided by rate-supported

bodies, the guardians and local authorities. The guardians provide general Poor Law infirmaries, to which poor persons requiring indoor hospital treatment are admitted on the certificate of the district medical officer of the Poor Law and the order of a relieving officer. The general infirmaries of the boards of guardians in large cities are usually well-equipped and well-staffed hospitals, but in many districts of the country the Poor Law infirmaries are still inferior types of institution.

Local authorities provide institutional accommodation for certain classes of diseases. Infectious diseases are removed to fever hospitals on notification and application to the local medical officer of health, with, or followed by a visit from the sanitary inspector of the district to enquire into the causes of the disease and to arrange for disinfection. Cases of tuberculosis are removed to sanatoria or hospitals provided by County Councils or County Borough Councils, according to the requirements of the case as determined by the tuberculosis officer. Such cases are notified to the medical officer of health of the district by the medical practitioner attending, who usually indicates the line of action he would advise, and when this is confirmed by the tuberculosis officer the case is admitted to the appropriate institution. The tuberculosis officer usually consults at a centre called the Tuberculosis Dispensary, which is situated conveniently near the area which it serves. A variety of other hospitals is provided by local authorities in different districts, for

instance, maternity hospitals, special eye hospitals for infants with ophthalmia neonatorum, infants' hospitals, and others. The usual method of admission in all these cases is by application to the medical officer of health.

Convalescent homes and other rest homes of various categories are provided, mostly by voluntary associations, frequently working in co-operation with voluntary and other hospitals in the district, but also frequently working in close contact with private medical practitioners, other charitable societies, a workpeople's convalescent fund, and the like. The manner of admission to such homes varies with the general working, cases being sent out on the initiative of voluntary hospitals, private practitioners and charitable committees in different circumstances.

These are the general lines of the arrangements for medical assistance and accommodation in hospitals or other institutions in the country, but variations occur frequently in different districts and it is incumbent upon visitors and all persons interested in the welfare of the blind to acquaint themselves of the agencies operating in the area in which they are engaged.

CHAPTER VIII

THE BLIND AND LEGISLATION

By the late Sir R. ELLIS CUNLIFFE, M.A.

FOR teachers of the blind a sound knowledge of the laws more peculiarly affecting blind persons is a very necessary equipment, inasmuch as by the possession of such knowledge they will be the better able in their daily work to detect deficiencies which need correction, or to suggest improvements and alterations which experience may teach them should be made. From this vantage-point the teacher may strive to become not only a reliable instructor and advisor, but also a potential reformer—high ideals at which to aim.

But apart from legislation particularly relating to them, blind persons, in common with other members of the community, are subject to the general laws of the realm, and in view of the fact that for several centuries the only legislative assistance given to the blind was, and indeed to a certain extent even to-day is, to be found in the provisions of the Poor Law Acts, particular attention must also be directed to this branch of general legislation.

From this point of view the laws relating to blind persons may be roughly grouped under

four different heads. The first of these deals with the blind under the Poor Law as persons in the same category as paupers, and as such to be afforded physical relief and maintenance, but nothing more. The second evinces the recognition by the State of the advisability of making provision for the education and, to some extent, assistance in later life, of blind persons, but still legislates for them through the machinery of the Poor Law. The third demonstrates a great advance in the line of thought from which the blind are surveyed, for it provides a special system of education and training for them in their youth as a body of persons handicapped in life's race by an infirmity attaching to them through no fault of their own.

The ultimate development of this recognition by the State culminates under the fourth head in the provisions of the Ministry of Health Act, 1919, and the Blind Persons Act, 1920, c. 49, which show that the State has realized that the blind are by reason of their infirmity deserving of special care and assistance throughout their lives, in order that they may be raised to some sort of equality with their more fortunate sighted brothers and sisters. Having regard, therefore, to the way in which the blind poor originally became the subject of legislation, it will be convenient to divide this treatise into two parts, to outline in the first part the general provisions of the laws relating to the relief of the poor, under which alone for a long time blind

persons received assistance, and to set out in the second part under the four heads above indicated the laws or the portions specially relating to the blind. And it must be borne in mind that to-day there is still a very large number of blind persons, especially those who are aged or not capable of working, or not capable of being taught to work, who receive assistance and relief under the provisions of the Poor Law, though there are two or three more recent Acts of Parliament, mentioned later, the provisions of which will by degrees tend to reduce the numbers of the blind who are still confined to receipt of relief under the Poor Law.

PART I.—THE POOR LAWS AS GENERALLY AFFECTING THE BLIND.*

By the Common Law the poor were to be “sustained by Parsons (Rectors of the Church) and by Parishioners, so that none of them should die for fault of sustenance,” but no compulsory method for their relief or sustenance was provided until the reign of King Henry VIII. The Monasteries, as possessors of the bulk of the tithes, appear to have been the principle almoners, and accordingly upon their dissolution many Statutes

*The student should note here that the Poor Law Acts affecting the education of the Poor Blind are only referred to generally in this Part, as the Acts more particularly relating to the Education of the Blind are given in Part II.

were passed in the reign of King Henry VIII and his children for providing for the poor and impotent ; it was under the Statute 43 Eliz. c. 2 (1601), (which is generally considered to be the foundation of our Poor Laws) that overseers of the poor were first appointed in every Parish. This Act of Queen Elizabeth involves two principles : (1) That every poor person should either be relieved or provided with work ; (2) That this should be done parochially, i.e., out of funds to be raised and applied by Parish Officers within the limits of their respective Parishes. The provisions of this Act as passed are so interesting as to justify giving the more important ones in full. The overseers were directed thereunder to " take order " (a quaint old expression) from time to time with the consent of two or more Justices of the Peace, for setting to work the children of all such whose position should not by the said overseers be thought able to keep and maintain their children, and also for setting to work all such persons, married or unmarried, having no means to maintain them and who used no ordinary and daily trade of life to get their living by, and they were also directed to raise by taxation of every inhabitant and occupiers of lands—being therein more particularly specified—in such competent sums of money as they should think fit, a convenient stock of flax, hemp, wool, thread, iron and other necessary ware and stuff to set the poor on work and also to raise in like manner competent sums of money for and towards the

necessary relief of the lame and impotent old blind and other poor persons not being able to work, and for the expense of putting out their children to be apprentices. The overseers were also empowered with the consent of Lords of Manors to build on waste or common land places of habitation for poor impotent people alone. To enable overseers to enforce these powers, they were authorized to make levies on the persons liable to pay the rates and to recover them, and penalties against the defaulters. At the same time, so that the Parish should not be at the full expense of the maintenance and relief of the impotent poor whose relatives were in a position to contribute to their keep, such relatives—as will more fully appear in the second part of this treatise—were made liable to be assessed for that purpose by Justices of the Peace.

As the original intention of this Act was to throw the burden of relief on the rates of the parishes where paupers had their place of settlement, i.e., where they were born, or had their abode for a certain time, power to remove paupers back to their parish of settlement was later conferred on to Justices of the Peace by the Statute 13 and 14 Char. II c. 12 (1662).

Difficult questions have from time to time arisen as to what is the actual settlement of a pauper; they are too complicated to be dealt with fully herein.

We now come to an important Act under which the system of Workhouses for the Poor was

inaugurated. Under Geo. I c. 7 (1722) Overseers of the Poor were given power to purchase Houses and to contract with persons for the hiring, keeping, maintaining and employing such poor persons who were desirous of relief, and then to keep, maintain, and employ all such persons and to take the benefit of the work, labour and services of any such poor person for the better maintenance and relief of such poor persons. But these enactments were repealed by the Statute Law Revision Act, 1887, other provisions for the establishment of Workhouses having been made by the Poor Law Amendment Act, 1834 (4 and 5 Will. IV c. 76), sections 23-26 (hereinafter referred to), and by later amending Acts.

By Statute 22 Geo. III c. 83 (1782) commonly called "Gilbert's Act," parishes were authorized with certain consents to appoint Guardians of the Poor to act in lieu of overseers in all matters relating to the relief and management of the poor (leaving overseers for the most part merely as makers and collectors of the rates), and powers were given to parishes to enter into voluntary union with one or more parishes for the more convenient accommodation, maintenance and employment of their paupers in common.

Further by the Act 59 Geo. III c. 12 (1819), called "The Select Vestry Act," any parish in Vestry assembled was enabled to commit the poor of its parish to a Committee of its parishioners called a "Select Vestry" to whose orders the overseers should conform.

But, though beneficial, these new methods were not sufficiently effective, nor were they generally adopted, and as the years went by an injudicious administration of the Poor Law whereby the idle poor came to benefit at the expense of the necessitous and impotent poor, bringing about an increase in pauperism and in the amount payable to Poor Rates, coupled with the lack of uniformity in administration and the absence of an over-riding authority capable of enforcing reforms, led to the appointment by Parliament in the year 1832 of a Royal Commission to enquire into and report on the Laws relating to the poor. In 1834, and upon the basis of the recommendations of the Commissioners, was passed the Statute 4 and 5 Will. IV c. 76, known as "The Poor Law (Amendment) Act 1834," upon which so much of our existing Poor Law system is based.

The object of this Act was rather to restore the scope and intention of the Statute of Elizabeth by placing its administration in the hands of responsible persons chosen by the rate-payers and themselves controlled by the orders of a Central Body, than to create a new system of Poor Laws, and by this Act, as before stated, new provisions for purchasing and building Workhouses were enacted.

By this Statute the general management of the poor and of the funds for their relief throughout the country was placed for a limited period under the superintendence and control of "The Poor Law Commissioners," who had power to make

such regulations as they thought proper for the guidance of the different parochial authorities, and who were assisted by a number of Assistant Commissioners, England and Wales being divided into 21 districts, to each of which an Assistant Commissioner was appointed.

This Commission was superseded in the year 1847, and in lieu thereof a Board was established by 10 and 11 Vict. c. 109, known as "The Poor Law Board," to which all the powers and duties of the former Poor Law Commissioners were then transferred. These powers and duties were later assigned to and vested in the "Local Government Board" (established in the year 1871 by 34 and 35 Vict. c. 70) and that Board was authorized to direct (where such course seemed proper) that the relief of the poor in any parish should be administered by a Board of Guardians, to be elected by owners of property and rate-payers in that parish, and Poor Law Inspectors were appointed for the purpose of visiting Workhouses, and of being present at Meetings of Guardians or other Local Meetings held for the relief of the poor.

The following powers were placed under the authority and the direction of the Local Government Board :

- a.* The uniting of Parishes under Gilbert's Act.
- b.* The consolidation of two or more Parishes into one Union under the government of a single Board of Guardians to be elected by the owners of property and rate-payers of the component Parishes, whereby each of such Unions could have a common Workhouse provided and maintained at the common expense of the component Parishes.

- c. The institution of a common fund to which each of such parishes was to contribute.
- d. The combination of Unions in certain cases.
- e. The making of regulations as to the relief of the destitute in the Metropolis, the cost whereof was distributed among the several Unions, Parishes and places therein under the assessment of the Local Government Board.
- f. The supervision of accounts and contracts.

It may be added that on the Common Fund just referred to is charged all the cost of the relief of the Union poor, as well as the cost of certain other expenses incurred by the Union Board of Guardians, comprising the relief of destitute wayfarers, the burial of Workhouse paupers, relief of persons temporarily disabled by accident or sickness, and the cost of poor lunatics.

The Guardians of the Poor regulate the cases and description of relief within the Union. They hold their meetings frequently according to the exigencies of the Union. Individual cases are brought to their notice, most cases of the resident poor by the Relieving Officer of the Union, while the cases of casual paupers are brought forward by him or by the Workhouse Officers by whom they were admitted in the first instance. The resident poor frequently appear in person before the Guardians. The Guardians have a clerk, generally a local solicitor of experience, whose duty it is to carry out their directions, and, as before pointed out, the Guardians in their turn are subject to the general or special regulations of the Local Government Board, now the Ministry of Health.

Although provision for the housing of the poor was one of the features in the original Act of Queen Elizabeth, the erection of workhouses does not appear to have been authorized earlier than in the reign of George I, under the Act before referred to, and considerable additions to the number of workhouses in existence in 1834 were made on the amendment of the system in that year. Since that time there has been a constant difference of opinion between the pauper class and the administrators of the law, the former wishing to be relieved at their own homes, and in many instances choosing rather to go without aid than move within the walls of the workhouse. Relief given in a workhouse is termed "in (or indoor) maintenance relief," and when given at the homes of the paupers is termed "outdoor relief." Admission to a workhouse may be by a written order of the Board of Guardians, or by the Master or Matron (or in their absence by the porter), without an order in any case of sudden or urgent necessity, or provisionally by a relieving officer, or overseer, or churchwarden. It is to be observed generally with respect to all persons who may apply for admission into a workhouse under circumstances of urgent necessity, that their destitution, coupled with the fact of their being within a union or parish, entitles them to relief there altogether independent of their settlement if they have one, which is a matter for future enquiry with the object of ascertaining the parish liable for their relief, to which they may be returned.

The inmates of a workhouse are necessarily separated into certain classes. In no well-managed institution of this sort in any country are males and females, the old and young, the healthy and sick indiscriminately mixed together. Guardians are required to divide the paupers into certain classes, and to sub-divide any one or more of these classes in any manner which may be advisable and in conformity with the internal arrangements of the workhouse. The Guardians are moreover required from time to time, after consulting the medical officer, to make the necessary arrangements with regard to persons labouring under any disease of body or mind, and, so far as circumstances permit, to sub-divide any of the enumerated classes with reference to the moral character or behaviour or the previous habits of the inmates, or on such other grounds as may seem expedient.

The separation of married couples was long a vexed question, and by express statutory provision in 1847 (10 and 11 Vict. c. 109 s. 23) husband and wife, both being above the age of 60, received into a Workhouse, cannot be compelled to live apart from each other. This exemption was carried somewhat further by order of the Board under which Guardians were not compelled to separate infirm couples provided they had sleeping apartment separate from that of other paupers, and in 1876, by the Act 39 and 40 Vict. c. 61 s. 10, Guardians were empowered at their discretion to permit husband and wife, where

either of them is infirm, sick, or disabled by any injury, or above 60 years of age, to live together ; every such case had to be reported to the Local Government Board.

The classification of children apart from adult paupers is peremptory. Separate schools for workhouses have been erected, in some instances either adjacent to the workhouse or some distance therefrom. The scattered home system, which consists of lodging-houses for children placed in different parts of the town apart from the actual Workhouse—from which the children attend the local public Elementary Schools—is still in existence. Orphan and deserted pauper children can also be boarded out with suitable foster-parents in the Union by all Boards of Guardians, except in the Metropolis. The evil of allowing children who have been reputably brought up in Poor Law Schools to relapse into vicious habits on their return to unworthy parents has been the subject of frequent remark. By the Poor Law Acts of 1889, 1899, Guardians are authorized to detain children who are in their charge as having been deserted by their parents, or whose parents are unfit to have control of them, or whose parents are dead, up to the age of 18.

The Custody of Children Act, 1891, goes further and enacts that where a parent has (*a*) abandoned or deserted his child or (*b*) allowed his child to be brought up by another person at that person's expense or by the Guardians of a Poor Law Union for such a length of time and in such

circumstances as to satisfy the Court that the parent was unmindful of his parental duties, the Court shall not make an order for the delivery of the child to the parent unless the parent has satisfied the Court that, having regard to the welfare of the child, he is a fit person to have the custody of the child.

Casual and poor wayfarers admitted by the master and matron are kept in a separate ward and dieted and set to work in such manner as the Guardians by resolution direct, and whenever any vagrants or mendicants are received into a Work-house they are usually (as a precaution necessary for preventing the introduction of infectious disease) kept entirely separate from other inmates unless their stay exceeds a single night.

By the Representation of the People Act, 1918 (7 and 8 Geo. V c. 64 s. 9), it is provided that "A person shall not be disqualified from being registered or from voting as a Parliamentary or local government elector by reason that he, or some person for whose maintenance he is responsible, has received Poor Relief or other Alms."

By the Ministry of Health Act, 1919 (9 and 10 Geo. V c. 21), all the powers and duties of the Local Government Board so far as the administration of the Poor Laws is concerned were transferred to the Minister of Health.

It may here be observed that the blind in common with other members of the community have benefited by the passing of Acts such as the National Insurance Acts, the Old Age Pensions

Acts, the Workmen's Compensation Acts, and the Lunacy and Mental Deficiency Acts, which should be referred to by those students who desire to become acquainted with their provisions in the course of their work as teachers.

The above is a general outline of the laws relating to the poor, but it is not possible in a treatise such as this to go into any detailed consideration of the provisions relating to the "settlement" of paupers, nor of those relating to the making and levying of poor rates, nor of those dealing with the exact relations of Overseers, Guardians and Select Vestries to each other. For the more minute provisions of these laws, students must consult the various Poor Law Acts and the treatises upon rating in general.

Much of what is contained in the above treatise has been taken from Stephen's "Commentaries on the Laws of England" and the article on the Poor Law in the "Encyclopædia Britannica," to which works due acknowledgment is here made.

PART II.—THE LAWS SPECIALLY RELATING TO THE BLIND.

Head I.—Powers of Justices of the Peace.

As already stated, existing legislation for the blind began in England in 1601 in the reign of Queen Elizabeth with the Statute (43 Eliz. c. 2 s. 6) entitled *An Act for the Relief of the Poor*, which provided among other things,

as already mentioned, for the appointment of Overseers of the Poor in every parish, who were to raise by taxation sums of money for and towards the necessary relief of the lame, impotent, old, blind and such other poor persons not able to work, and it was further provided thereby with a view to the relief of the local rates that the following relatives of every poor, old, blind, lame and impotent person, i.e., the father and grandfather, and the mother and the grandmother, and the children, should *if of sufficient ability* at their own charges, relieve and maintain every such poor person in the manner and according to the rate as by the Justices of the Peace of that County where such relatives dwelt should be assessed at their General Quarter Sessions on penalty of 20s. for every month of failure.

This Act was amended by another one passed in 1819 in the reign of King George III (59 Geo. III c. 12 s. 26), an Act to amend the laws for the relief of the poor, whereby the powers conferred on Justices of the Peace by the aforementioned Act of Queen Elizabeth were altered so as to enable them to be exercised more frequently by the Justices, i.e., in their Petty Sessions.

Later we find that these two Acts of Parliament were partially repealed by an Act passed in the reign of Queen Victoria (31 and 32 Vict. c. 122 s. 36), the Poor Law Amendment Act, 1868, whereby so much of these two Acts, i.e., the Poor Relief Act, 1601, and the Poor Relief Act,

1819, as enables orders of maintenance to be made by Justices having jurisdiction in the place where the *persons upon whom they are to be made dwell and as prescribes the penalty for disobedience were*, in respect of any order to be made thereafter, *repealed*, it being provided instead that such orders should be made by the Justices in Petty Sessions assembled at their usual place of meeting *having jurisdiction in the Union or Parish to which the poor person on whose behalf the order of maintenance was sought to be made should be chargeable*. It was provided also that such orders were to be enforced in the manner prescribed by the Summary Jurisdiction Act, 1848 (11 and 12 Vict. c. 43), for enforcing orders of Justices.

Head II.

By the provisions of the Act (25 and 26 Vict. c. 43) entitled The Education of Pauper Children Act, 1862—its short title being The Poor Law (Certified Schools) Act, 1862—it was provided :—

That the Guardians of any parish or union might send any poor child to any school certified as thereafter mentioned and supported wholly or partly by voluntary subscriptions, the managers of which should be willing to receive such child, and might pay out of the funds in their possession the expenses incurred in the maintenance, clothing and education of such child therein during the time such child should remain at such school (not exceeding the total sum which would have been charged for the maintenance of such child if

relieved in the Workhouse during the same period), and in the conveyance of such child to and from the same, and in the case of death the expenses of his or her burial. These powers were subsequently curtailed by the Elementary Education (Blind and Deaf Children) Act, 1893, hereinafter referred to.

That the Poor Law Board might if they thought fit upon the application in writing of the Managers of any such schools aforesaid appoint such person as they should deem proper to examine into the condition of the school and to report to the Board thereon, and, if satisfied with such report, the Board might, by writing under the hand of one of their secretaries, certify that such school was fitted for the reception of such children or persons as might be sent there by the Guardians in pursuance of the Act, and it was also provided that it should be lawful for the Board, if at any time they should be dissatisfied with the condition or the management of such school, by notice addressed to the Managers and signed as aforesaid, to declare that the certificate was withdrawn from and after a day to be specified therein, not less than two months after the date thereof.

That no child, unless being an orphan, or deserted, or being children of parents consenting, was to be sent to such a school.

That no child was to be sent to any school which was conducted on the principles of a religious denomination to which such child did not belong.

It was also provided that the word " school " should extend to any institution established for the education of blind, deaf, dumb, lame, deformed or idiotic persons, but should not apply to any certified reformatory school.

It may be noted here that the expenditure authorized to be made on a child by this Act was not on a very liberal scale.

Power to send adult paupers to suitable institutions.

By s. 21 of the Poor Law Amendment Act, 1867 (30 and 31 Vict. c. 106), Guardians were authorized to provide for the reception, maintenance and instruction of any adult pauper being blind or deaf and dumb, in any hospital or institution established for the reception of persons suffering from such infirmities, and to pay the charges incurred in the conveyance of such pauper to and from the hospital or institution, as well as those incurred in his maintenance, support or instruction therein.

Under the provisions of the Act 31 and 32 Vict. c. 122 s. 42, the Poor Law Amendment Act, 1868, the guardians of any union or parish may with the approval of the Poor Law Board send any poor deaf or blind child to any school fitted for the reception of such child, though such school shall not have been certified under the provisions of the aforementioned Act of the 25th and 26th years of Victoria, c. 43, but in the case of illegitimate children the consent of the mother, and in

the case of orphans or deserted children the consent of the Poor Law Board, has to be obtained before sending the child to any such hospital or institution under this Act or under the Act of 1862. These provisions were also subsequently curtailed by the Elementary Education (Blind and Deaf Children) Act, 1893.

Relief of blind persons from licence duty of dogs used for their guidance.

By s. 21 of the Customs and Inland Revenue Act, 1878 (41 and 42 Vict. c. 15), it was provided that a dog licence was not necessary in the case of a dog kept and used solely by a blind person for his or her guidance, nor was any such person liable for any penalty in respect of a dog so kept or used.

Power to Guardians to subscribe to institutions for blind persons and to associations for aiding blind persons.

Under s. 10 of the Poor Law Act of 1879 (42 and 43 Vict. c. 54) Guardians were empowered with the consent of the Local Government Board to subscribe towards any asylum or institution for blind persons or towards any association for aiding such persons, provided always that nothing should authorize any such subscription to any asylum or institution unless the Local Government Board were satisfied that the paupers under the Guardians have, or could have, assistance

therein in case of necessity. It has been suggested that this power should be made compulsory.

By the Divided Parishes and Poor Law Amendment Act, 1882 (45 and 46 Vict. c. 58, s. 13), it was provided that the Guardians of any Union who send any pauper child to a school certified under the aforementioned Act of the 25th and 26th years of the reign of Queen Victoria c. 43 may pay the reasonable expenses incurred in the maintenance, clothing and education of such child whilst in such school, to an amount not exceeding such rate of payment as may be sanctioned by the Local Government Board, for pauper children sent to such school, anything contained in the said last-mentioned Act to the contrary notwithstanding.

It will be gathered from the foregoing that in the main the only special and distinctive legislation for the education of blind persons was until comparatively recently worked out under the Poor Law Acts, for although the first great General Education Act was passed in 1870, and blind children were covered by its provisions, yet the inability of blind children and of their parents to take complete advantage of the provisions of that Act—owing amongst other things to the difficulty of enforcing attendance in the case of blind children, coupled with the further difficulty of giving adequate instruction to blind children alongside sighted children, and that the fact of a child being blind was regarded as a reasonable excuse on the part of its parents for not enforcing

its attendance at school—made the operation of that Act as regards blind children both defective and unsatisfactory, and though special classes for the blind were established by the London School Board in 1879, it is not until we come to the passing of the Act known as the Elementary Education (Blind and Deaf Children) Act, 1893 (56 and 57 Vict. c. 42), that we get the full recognition on the part of the State of the necessity for separate and distinct legislation for the education of blind children. This Act may fairly be styled “The Charter for the Education of Blind Children in England and Wales.”

Now it may be convenient here to refer somewhat to the growth and advance of education of blind children, owing largely to the work of voluntary agencies prior to the passing of this last-mentioned Act. A Memorandum of the Board of Education on the education of the blind which appeared in Appendix 2 to the Volume of the Minutes of Evidence given before the Departmental Committee on the Welfare of the Blind issued in 1917, contains the following short historical summary of the provisions for the education of the blind :—

The Memorandum states that the beginning of education of the blind in Great Britain dates back to the later decades of the 18th century. In 1790 the first institution was established at Liverpool. This was followed in 1793 by the School of Industry for the Blind at Bristol, and in 1799 by the first school in London, the Blind School in St. George's,

Southwark, which was removed in 1902 to the new building at Leatherhead.

Until 1830 all education of the blind was conducted in residential institutions, but it is on record that, in 1834, a number of blind children in Edinburgh were receiving instruction in ordinary day schools. For the next thirty-five years, however, very little further was done in this direction, until in 1869 Worcester College for the Blind was established to provide higher education preparatory to the Universities. In this institution pupils were retained up to 19 or 21 years of age.

In the year 1866 Dr. Armitage drew attention to the lack of employment among the adult blind trained in institutions, and, in the conviction that much could be done to remedy the existing defects under better educational conditions, he succeeded in bringing about the establishment of the Royal Normal College for the Blind at Norwood in 1872, under the direction of Dr. (afterwards Sir Francis) Campbell. In 1882 a kindergarten and primary school was added, and in 1895 the department for the training of blind teachers was established. The curriculum at Norwood included at its establishment music and pianoforte tuning, and since that time the College has always stood more particularly for the musical training, physical culture, and general intellectual development of the blind, as compared with the more industrial character of other institutions in the country.

Among other notable efforts on behalf of the welfare of the blind which were organized in the

first instance by Dr. Armitage, was the British and Foreign Blind Association, now the National Institute for the Blind, which was founded in 1868 for the introduction and dissemination of Braille literature and music throughout the country.

In 1874, the London School Board decided to establish special classes for the blind and deaf, the first day school for blind children being actually opened in 1879. These schools were conducted without Government grant for a period of 15 years, at the end of which they fell within the scope of the Elementary Education (Blind and Deaf Children) Act, 1893, hereinafter more particularly referred to.

The education of the blind was also materially assisted by Gardner's Trust for the Blind, the benefits of which became available in 1879. The income from this Trust was largely devoted to training the blind in music, crafts, trades and the professions.

These individual and voluntary undertakings gradually paved the way for State action, and in 1883 the Royal Commission on the Blind and Deaf took evidence on the whole subject. It is owing to the Report of that Committee issued in 1889 that the Act of 1893 was passed.

Head III.—The Elementary Education (Blind and Deaf Children) Act, 1893 (56 and 57 Vict. c. 42).

The Report of the Departmental Committee on the Welfare of the Blind, issued in 1917, contains in Appendix II a Memorandum of the Board

of Education on the Education of the Blind, which embodies among other things an epitome of the above-mentioned Act ; as a considered summary of the Act it may conveniently be given *in extenso*. It is as follows :—

The Elementary Education (Blind and Deaf Children) Act, 1893, was enacted as a result of the Report of the Royal Commission. This Act placed upon the parent of a blind child the obligation to cause his child to receive elementary instruction suitable to such a child, and the fact that there was not within any particular distance of the residence of the child a school which the child could attend was not to be an excuse for not causing the child to attend school or for neglecting to provide efficient elementary instruction for the child. A school authority was created by the Act, and it was made the duty of that Authority to enable blind children for whose elementary education efficient and suitable provision was not otherwise made, to obtain such education in a school for the time being certified by the Education Department. For that purpose the school authority might either establish or acquire and maintain a school so certified, or contribute on approved terms to the establishment or enlargement, alteration and maintenance of a certified school, and might make arrangements under regulations of the Education Department for boarding out a blind child in a home conveniently near a certified school. If a certified school was not managed by a school authority, it was required

that not less than one-third of the annual expenses of maintenance should be defrayed out of sources other than local rates or moneys provided by Parliament. The Act imposed upon the parent a liability to contribute towards the expenses incurred by a school authority in respect of the child, and any contributions of parents were to be treated as a contribution from local rates. The period of compulsory education was to extend to sixteen years for a blind child, and no blind child was to be entitled to any exemption from the obligation to attend school. For the purposes of the Act "blind" was defined to mean "too blind to be able to read the ordinary school books used by children," and "elementary education" might include "industrial training." Later legislation, i.e., The Education Act, 1921 (11 and 12 Geo. V c. 5), Sec. 3, has substituted for the "school authority," created by this Act, the Local Education Authority* for Elementary Education, but the provisions detailed above remain in force, with the exception that the Education (Administrative Provisions) Act, 1907, has repealed the condition that the expenses of the annual maintenance of a certified school not managed by a school authority shall be defrayed, to the extent of not less than one-third, out of sources other than local rates or moneys provided by Parliament. The practical effect of the annulment of this requirement has

*For definition of a Local Education Authority, see Sec. 3, The Education Act, 1921.

been to throw upon the local education authorities sending children to these institutions the whole cost (after deducting the Board of Education grants) of maintaining the children in the institutions, except in so far as the Managers may diminish the cost to the authorities by allocating to school maintenance any portion of such funds as may be at their disposal.

It should further be noted here that this Act of 1893 also provided that so much of any enactment then in force as empowered Boards of Guardians to send blind or deaf children to school was to be repealed except in the case of children who are :—

- (a) Idiots or imbeciles, or
- (b) Resident in a workhouse or in an institution to which they have been sent by a Board of Guardians from a workhouse, or
- (c) Boarded out by guardians.

And consequently the Powers of Guardians under the aforementioned Poor Law (Certified Schools) Act, 1862, and The Poor Law Amendment Act, 1868, with regard to the education of blind pauper children, have been to this extent curtailed.

The Memorandum goes on to state as follows :—

The Education Act, 1902, enables the local education authority for Part II of that Act to supply or aid the supply of education other than elementary. The power to provide at the public charge for the further education of blind children who have attended a certified school up to the age of 16 is thus included in the general powers of the local education authority, but no duty is laid

upon that authority to supply or aid the supply of higher education for any particular classes of persons. The local education authority may, if it sees fit, take steps to provide for the education of blind persons over 16, but need not do so.

Reference should also be made to the Education Act, 1918, whereby the Board of Education is authorized to give maintenance grants to pupils up to adult years while under training. This has enabled schools for the blind to take advantage of this provision.

The Acts of 1893 and 1902 have been entirely, and the Act of 1918 partly, repealed by and incorporated in the codifying Education Act of 1921.

Head IV.

As before stated, recognition by the State of its obligation, not merely to give maintenance to, but to educate those citizens who suffer from the dire infirmity of blindness, and generally to come to the assistance of the blind, has at a later period of time culminated in the provisions of the Ministry of Health Act, 1919, and of the Blind Persons Act, 1920 (10 and 11 Geo. V c. 49). This latter Act is the outcome of a movement which had been going on some years prior to 1914, which we find that the voluntary agencies interested in the blind and the blind workers themselves had promoted, with the result that for some years two Bills coming from these two quarters had been put forward simultaneously. It was not until towards the end of 1913 that the provisions of an agreed Bill were

arrived at. This Bill, which was in no sense a Government Bill, but backed by private members only, was on the point of being introduced to the House, when the opportunity was seized by Mr. Wardle, M.P., to make what is now recognized as an epoch-making speech on the subject of the blind in the House of Commons on March 11th, 1914, when the whole subject was sympathetically received, the Government agreeing to the appointment of a Departmental Committee to go into the matter; this Committee promptly sat, and notwithstanding the War, produced in 1917 the valuable report referred to above. An outcome thereof was the Blind Persons Act, 1920. The important provisions of this Act which were suggested in some particulars by the above Bill later introduced into the House, were as follows:—

“Every blind person who has attained the age of fifty years shall be entitled to receive and to continue to receive such pension as under the Old Age Pension Acts, 1908 to 1919, he would be entitled to receive if he had attained the age of seventy.

“It shall be the duty of the council of every county borough, whether in combination with any other council or councils or otherwise, to make arrangements to the satisfaction of the Minister of Health for promoting the welfare of blind persons ordinarily resident within their area, and such council may for this purpose provide and maintain or contribute towards the provision and maintenance of workshops, hostels, homes, or

other places for the reception of blind persons whether within or without their area, and, with the approval of the Minister of Health, do such other things as may appear to them desirable for the purpose aforesaid. The Council shall, within twelve months after the passing of this Act, prepare and submit to the Minister of Health a scheme for the exercise of their powers under this section.

“ A council may exercise any of the powers conferred by this section (other than the power of raising a rate or of borrowing money) through a committee of the council, and may appoint as members of the committee persons specially qualified by training or experience in matters relating to the blind who are not members of the council, but not less than two-thirds of the members of every such committee shall consist of members of the council, and a committee established under this section may, subject to any direction of the council, appoint such and so many sub-committees, consisting either *or* partly of members of the committee, as the committee thinks fit.

“ This section shall apply to the City of London as if it were a county borough and the common council were the council of a county borough, and any expenses of the common council under this section shall be defrayed out of the general rate.

“ Nothing in this section shall affect the powers and duties of local education authorities under the Elementary Education (Blind and Deaf

Children) Act, 1893, or the Education Acts, 1870 to 1919, and local education authorities, in the exercise of their duty to contribute to the establishment of a national system of public education available for all persons capable of profiting thereby, shall make or otherwise secure adequate and suitable provision for the technical education of blind persons ordinarily resident in their area who are capable of receiving and being benefited by such education.

“ For the purposes of this section, a blind person who becomes an inmate of an institution for the blind after the commencement of this Act shall be deemed to continue to be ordinarily resident in the area in which he was ordinarily resident before he became an inmate of such institution.”

One of the further outcomes of the recommendations of this Report was the constitution of a special department under the Ministry of Health charged with the general care and supervision of the blind, which was brought about under the Ministry of Health Act, 1919 (9 and 10 Geo. V c. 21), whereby there is laid on the Minister a general duty to take all such steps as may be desirable to secure the preparation, effective carrying-out and co-ordination of measures conducive to the health of the people, including measures for the treatment and care of the blind.

Two further provisions for the benefit of the blind may be alluded to in concluding this treatise :—

Special Postal Rates.—By sec. 2 of the Post

Office Act, 1908 (8 Edward VII, c. 48), it was enacted that a warrant may fix special postage rates for postal packets consisting of books or papers impressed for the use of the blind, and may specify any special conditions and regulations in respect of the transmission by post of such packets.

.(This Act, when passed, applied to the United Kingdom, the Channel Islands and the Isle of Man.)

By a General Order made by the Local Government Board in 1914, under the provisions of sec. 130 of the Public Health Act, 1875, the disease of the eyes in newborn children, known in the medical world as Ophthalmia Neonatorum, was made a disease notifiable under sec. 3 of The Infectious Disease (Notification) Act, 1889.

In August, 1924, an Act was passed to amend paragraph (3) of section 2 of the Old Age Pension Act, 1908, as amended by sub-section (1) of section 2 of the Old Age Pension Act, 1919. Under the Act of 1908 as so amended an old age pensioner suffered diminution of pension if his income was above £26 5s. a year. Under the Amending Act an additional income not exceeding £39 a year, if derived from any source other than earnings, may be enjoyed without diminution of pension.

By the Wireless Telegraphy (Blind Persons Facilities) Act, 1926 (16 and 17 Geo. V, ch. 54) it is provided that where a person satisfies the Postmaster-General that he is a blind person

within the meaning of the Act, a licence to establish, maintain and work a wireless telegraph station for the purpose of receiving messages only may be granted to him by the Postmaster-General, subject to such terms, conditions and restrictions as the Postmaster-General may think fit but without payment of any fee, and, further, that for the purpose of the Act a blind person shall mean any person (not being resident in a public or charitable institution or in a school) who produces to the Postmaster-General a certificate issued by or under the authority of the Council of the County or of the County Borough in which he is ordinarily resident that he is registered as a blind person in the area of the County or County Borough.

CHAPTER IX

*ADMINISTRATION IN ENGLAND
AND WALES*

By E. D. MACGREGOR.

IN the syllabus governing the examination for home teachers the subject "Machinery of Administration" is defined as including "a knowledge of the methods by which the Ministry of Health supervise the welfare of the blind, and a knowledge of the various agencies through which the Ministry work and to which they pay grants."

The first enactment specifically imposing a duty upon the Minister of Health with regard to the blind as such was the Ministry of Health Act, 1919, which lays a general duty upon the Minister to take all such steps as may be desirable to secure the preparation, effective carrying out, and co-ordination of measures conducive to the health of the people, including measures for the treatment and care of the blind. There were, of course, previous Acts of Parliament within whose scope blind persons might find themselves included, e.g., the Poor Law Acts, the National Insurance and Workmen's Compensation Acts, the Lunacy and Mental Deficiency Acts, etc., but under those Acts the blind were dealt with as being destitute, or sick, or disabled, or mentally defective, but not

as being blind. All mention is omitted here of the special legislation relating to the education and training of the blind with which all home teachers ought to be familiar.

The Ministry of Health, in view of its specific duties as regards the treatment and care of the blind as such, frequently has reference made to it on matters affecting blind persons, because they come within the Poor Law Acts, or the Insurance Acts, or the Workmen's Compensation Acts, etc., and finds it necessary to interest itself in all matters affecting blind persons and covered by existing statutes, but its powers and duties in relation to blind persons because they are blind are derived, as stated above, first, from the Ministry of Health Act itself, and, more specifically, from the Blind Persons Act, 1920, and from the regulations governing the distribution of the grant in aid which is voted annually by Parliament.

The Ministry of Health is a Department of State responsible through its Minister, who is a Member of the Cabinet, to Parliament itself. The Ministry is thus in its administration of powers conferred by Parliament responsible to Parliament, and, more particularly, for the manner in which is spent the money voted by Parliament. A part of that money is devoted to furthering the welfare of blind persons. Every year the Ministry, like other State Departments, has to make an estimate of its financial requirements for the ensuing year, and this estimate, after approval by the Treasury and the Cabinet, is laid before Parliament for approval.

On the debate on this estimate it is open to any Member of Parliament to raise any matter relating to the services carried on by the Ministry. The system of asking questions in Parliament also affords every Member an opportunity of making enquiry on matters arising out of the administrative actions of the Ministry, as they affect not only the community generally but individuals also.

Clearly, however, it is possible for the Ministry only to lay down a general policy ; it cannot itself handle directly all the individuals affected by the policy. For this it requires to make use of agents, and these agents are either the Voluntary Agencies carrying on work on behalf of the blind, or the Local Authorities on which duties are imposed and powers conferred by the Blind Persons Act, 1920. Further, these agents are not direct agents in the sense that they are under the control of the Ministry. The Voluntary Agencies are (as their name implies) free agents, which, in return for grants of money from the Exchequer, undertake to carry out certain services under certain conditions ; the Local Authorities have duties and powers directly imposed or conferred upon them by Parliament, but these powers and duties are in their exercise made subject to the general approval of the Minister.

The Local Authorities, as indicated above, derive their obligations towards the blind from the Blind Persons Act, 1920, and Section 2 (1) of that Act reads as follows :—

“ 2.—(1) It shall be the duty of the council of

every county and every county borough, whether in combination with any other council or councils or otherwise, to make arrangements to the satisfaction of the Minister of Health for promoting the welfare of blind persons ordinarily resident within their area, and such council may for this purpose provide and maintain or contribute towards the provision and maintenance of workshops, hostels, homes, or other places for the reception of blind persons whether within or without their area, and, with the approval of the Minister of Health, do such other things as may appear to them desirable for the purpose aforesaid. The council shall, within twelve months after the passing of this Act, prepare and submit to the Minister of Health a scheme for the exercise of their powers under this section."

It will be seen that the Council of every County and every County Borough are required to submit a scheme to the Minister for approval showing how they propose to make arrangements for promoting the welfare of the blind ordinarily resident in their area, and for that purpose they are given certain specific powers to provide or maintain workshops, etc., and a general power, with the Minister's approval, to do anything which may be deemed desirable for the welfare of the blind. All the Councils concerned have submitted schemes accordingly.

The first question to be asked on this is :—What are County Councils and County Borough Councils? Briefly they are the Councils of the

Administrative Counties and of the large towns of England and Wales. They are self-governing local government bodies, and the most important of the Local Authorities in this country. In England and Wales there are 62 County Councils and, including the County of the City of London, 83 County Borough Councils.

A home teacher may find himself or herself working in the area of a County Council or a County Borough Council, or partly in one and partly in the other. Thus, he may work both in the City of Oxford and also visit blind persons resident just outside the City boundaries who come within the jurisdiction of the County Council of Oxfordshire. Both authorities, that of the City and that of the County, will have separate schemes under the Blind Persons Act, and every home teacher working in such area should be acquainted with the contents of these schemes. The Ministry have indicated in Memorandum 27/BD what ground every scheme under the Blind Persons Act should cover, and how the varying classes of the blind may be dealt with under the scheme.

The home teacher is very seldom the servant of a County Council or a County Borough Council ; ordinarily he or she is an officer of a Voluntary Agency. It will be found, however, that the Local Authority has, with the Minister of Health's approval, called in the Voluntary Agency to help it to carry out its duties under its scheme under the Blind Persons Act, and in this way the welfare

of the blind has become the joint care of the State, the large Local Authorities and the Voluntary Agencies working together in partnership.

The Voluntary Agencies are thus the real executive bodies, the bodies which deal with the individual blind person from day to day. For their work they depend upon three sources of income : (1) money raised by way of voluntary subscriptions and donations from the public, (2) grants made by the State, (3) grants made by the Local Authorities under the Blind Persons Act. It will be found sometimes that Local Education Authorities and Boards of Guardians are also contributing to the funds of Voluntary Agencies, but in the case of Local Education Authorities such contributions are paid by way of fees for training, and generally so also in the case of contributions by Boards of Guardians.

With regard to the latter and the Poor Law generally it should be understood that there is nothing in the Blind Persons Act which releases Boards of Guardians from their statutory duty to relieve destitution wherever found, whether the destitute person is a blind person or not, and in all cases of destitution this should be borne in mind.

The grants made by the Ministry of Health to Voluntary Agencies are governed by the regulations of the Ministry dated August 7th, 1919, and a home teacher should be familiar with those regulations. It will be seen that the grants are, with one small exception, made on a capitation

basis, that is, at so much per head, and that they are paid in respect of the following services and at the rates per annum indicated :—

- | | |
|---|--|
| a. Provision of Workshop employment - - - | £20 per blind employee. |
| b. Provision of assistance to Home Workers - - | £20 per blind home worker. |
| c. Provisions of Home and Hostel accommodation - | £13 and £5 respectively per blind resident. |
| d. Provision of Home Teaching Production of Books, etc. - | £78 per home teacher.
2s. 6d. per volume,
and 2d. per copy of
magazine, periodical
or sheet music in
embossed type. |
| Counties Associations - | £20 per hundred registered blind persons in area. |

The exception to the capitation system of grants referred to above is the grant of 50 per cent. of the approved expenditure on the initial equipment of home workers. It has been found necessary in the case of home workers to impose a condition not contained in the original regulations, to the effect that for the purpose of grant a home worker must earn at least 16/- a week in the case of a man, and 8/- a week in the case of a woman, before full grant will be paid. All the above grants are paid in two instalments, the first being a grant on account which is paid on or after October 1st in any year, and the second or final instalment after April 1st in any year, on presentation of the accounts of the agency in a form which has been prescribed by the Minister. Applications for

grant must be made upon a form supplied, and must be accompanied by registers of attendance and of work done. These registers are checked and grant assessed and paid after any outstanding points have been dealt with.

Clearly the Minister must be satisfied as regards any agency that it is doing its work efficiently, and for that purpose he has three inspectors whose duty it is to inspect workshops and institutions and to report to him on the work done, including the work of home teaching or visiting, on which the utmost importance is placed. It is the duty of these inspectors also to interview new home teachers on their first appointment, and to satisfy the Minister as to their qualifications for the work—their qualifications being later tested by the examination of the College of Teachers of the Blind. No home teacher in respect of whom grant is claimed by any agency may be appointed without the Minister's prior approval.

All home teachers and, more particularly, those working in rural areas, should acquaint themselves with the possibilities of providing assistance to home workers under a properly organized scheme in accordance with the grant regulations, and in this connection attention is drawn to the suggestions made on page 2 of the circular letter which accompanies the regulations. Home workers are defined in the regulations (paragraph 19) as adult blind persons who, for sufficient reasons, are employed elsewhere than in a workshop in occupations usually practised in a workshop and are

attached for the purposes of care, assistance and supervision to an approved agency. In addition to the requirement previously referred to as to the earning capacity of home workers, the Minister has laid down the following general conditions in regard to schemes :—

- a. Casual employment in the occupation concerned should not qualify for inclusion in a scheme.
- b. Continuing services on the part of the agency should be shown to be performed.
- c. Regular records of output should be kept, and these records should enable the Inspectors of the Ministry to determine whether the worker is genuinely and regularly employed both from the point of view of earning capacity and hours of employment.
- d. Every home worker should be such that, save for physical disabilities, he could be properly employed in a workshop if such were available.
- e. The grant should not be used in substitution for workshop provision nor given in respect of persons who would more properly be in receipt of monetary assistance.

The award of pensions under Section 1 of the Blind Persons Act involves a somewhat different machinery of administration. This section of the Act applies to the granting of such pensions under the machinery of the Old Age Pensions Acts. Therefore the claimant has to satisfy all the conditions for an Old Age Pension, with the exception that he or she must have attained the age of 50 years, and must be "so blind as to be unable to perform any work for which eyesight is essential."

The authorities principally concerned in the

administration of this part of the Act are accordingly the Local Pensions Committees, the Commissioners of Customs and Excise and the Ministry of Health. The Local Pension Committees are Committees appointed under the Old Age Pensions Acts by County Councils and County Borough Councils. Such Committees may also be appointed by the Council of any Borough or Urban District with a population of 20,000 or over. The Board of Customs and Excise appoint Pensions Officers in each district. A claim, when made, is sent to the Local Pension Officer (not to the Committee) and the Officer will then make a full investigation of the claim. The Officer's report is put before the Local Pension Committee, which considers it and invites the claimant to be present if he so desires. The Committee gives a decision for or against the claim, and the decision is communicated to the claimant.

It is, however, open to the Pension Officer to appeal against the granting of the claim if he considers there is reason to do so, and similarly the claimant may also appeal, if the claim is disallowed, and he considers that he can produce evidence that the decision is wrong. When an appeal is thus made, all the documents relating to the case are sent to the Ministry of Health, and it is the duty of the Minister to give a decision upon it. This decision is final, and the matter cannot be re-opened except by making a fresh claim. In order to obtain material for deciding such appeals in the case of pensions for the blind,

the Ministry of Health arrange, where they consider it necessary, for the claimant's vision to be examined by officers of the Ministry's Regional Medical staff and, if any doubt still remains, by an ophthalmic specialist. The address of the Local Pension Officer and forms of application may be obtained at any Post Office.

In circular 681 the Minister has indicated the consideration which he has in mind when he is required, either under his grant regulations or in respect of claimants to an Old Age Pension under Section 1 of the Blind Persons Act, to determine whether any particular person is or is not blind within the meaning of the Act. These considerations are of importance to all engaged in work for the blind in connection with the proper certification of individual cases.

It has already been stated that the Minister of Health can only lay down the general policy to be followed. In this he is assisted by an Advisory Committee consisting of representatives of the Local Authorities under the Blind Persons Act, of Boards of Guardians, of the Voluntary Agencies, and of the National League of the Blind and the National Union of the Professional and Industrial Blind. This Committee issues annually a report of its work, and these reports, of which six have already been issued, contain a great deal of information about the blind generally. In the first three reports will be found detailed information as to the numbers and various classes of the blind in geographical areas. The Committee

is consulted by the Minister in all matters of general policy and of itself initiates policy by way of recommendations to the Minister.

The following are the most important documents relating to the welfare of the blind issued by the Ministry :—

Reports of the Advisory Committee on the Welfare of the Blind (6). Price, First and Sixth Reports, 9d.					
Others	Price 6d.
Grant Regulations—7th August, 1919	3d.
Blind Persons Act, 1920	1d.
Memorandum 27/BD	2d.
Memorandum 64/BD	2d.
Circular 387	1d.
Circular 681	2d.

All these documents may be obtained either through a bookseller or directly from H.M. Stationery Office, Imperial House, Kingsway, London, W.C.2, and 28, Abingdon Street, London, S.W.1; York Street, Manchester; or 1, St. Andrews Crescent, Cardiff.

CHAPTER X

ADMINISTRATION IN SCOTLAND

By W. M. STONE, F.E.I.S.

THE Government Departments charged with administration of statutory duties relating to the blind in Scotland are :—

1. The Scottish Education Department.
2. The Scottish Board of Health.

THE SCOTTISH EDUCATION DEPARTMENT.

The head of this Department is the Secretary for Scotland, who holds this position in virtue of his office of Vice-President of the Committee of Council on Education in Scotland.

The offices of the Department are 14, Queen Street, Edinburgh, and Dover House, Whitehall, London.

Legislation with regard to Education.

By the Education of Blind and Deaf Mute Children (Scotland) Act, 1890, it is enacted that if the parent of a blind child between 5 and 16 years of age is from poverty unable to pay for the education of such child, it shall be the duty of the School Board of the parish or burgh in which such parent resides to provide out of the school fund at

rates to be approved of by the Scotch Education Department for the efficient elementary education of such child, and where necessary the School Board shall be bound to provide for the boarding of the child at some place approved of by the School Board, and for the transit of such child to and from such school or institution or place, at rates to be approved of by the Scotch Education Department.

This, the most important clause of the 1890 Act, still stands, though it has been modified slightly by the Act of 1918. School Boards are now known as Education Authorities, and, with the exception of Edinburgh, Glasgow, Aberdeen and Dundee, are county bodies. The Scotch Education Department has been more correctly renamed the Scottish Education Department, and, most important change of all, the age of liability for payment towards the education of a blind child has been raised to eighteen years.

Another important clause of the 1890 Act is Clause (2) of Section 3, which says that if any School Board (Education Authority) shall refuse or delay to discharge or fulfil any obligation arising under this section, it may on a summary application to the Sheriff at the interest of any person interested, be ordained to do so and the order of the Sheriff shall be final and not subject to review.

Another important section empowers School Boards (Education Authorities) with the consent of the Scottish Education Department to contribute

such sums of money and on such conditions as it may think fit towards the establishment, building, alteration and management of a school for the education of blind children and the purchase of land required for such a school and the support of the inmates thereof.

The right of a parent to select which school his child shall be sent to is safeguarded under Section 7 (2).

It should be noted that while Education Authorities are not liable for the care of a child before the age of five years has been reached, such a child may be sent to a residential school by a Local Authority (Blind Persons Act) or by a Parish Council.

School Grants.

The Scottish Education Department pays grant to all Schools for the Blind. Education Authorities which have schools of their own receive grants as they do for ordinary schools. To schools not under an Education Authority a grant is paid not exceeding the deficit of funds required to meet the approved expenditure of the school in each year as determined by the Department after crediting (a) contributions received within that year from Education Authorities for the education or maintenance of individual pupils, (b) fees, or contributions in relief of fees, and (c) revenue from endowments or other local sources including any contributions from an Education Authority to the school in terms of Section 9 (1) of the Education

(Scotland) Act, 1918. This grant shall not, save in exceptional circumstances, exceed in amount the revenue under (c).

To put it shortly, this means that the grant paid by the Department will not be allowed to exceed the amount contributed from local sources, but contributions from local sources are not to include payments for maintenance and education of individual children. Under Section 9 (1) of the Education (Scotland) Act, Education Authorities may make a payment towards the maintenance of any School within its area on condition, (1) that the teachers are remunerated at a rate not lower than the rate for teachers of similar qualifications employed by the Authority, and (2) that there is a reasonable representation of the Authority on the governing body.

The Department makes it a condition of the payment of grant that not more than fifteen children shall be enrolled in a class under one teacher.

Grants for Further Training.

Where an Education Authority or other body of managers make provision to the satisfaction of the Department for the training of young persons who have attended schools for the blind up till at least 16 years of age, or of persons who by age and educational qualifications are likely to profit by the training, grants may be paid to the Education Authority or Managers in the same manner as grants paid to schools for blind children.

The training must be adapted to prepare the persons concerned for a trade or any other means of livelihood while continuing their instruction in general subjects, and must be arranged to cover such period as the Department may approve, having regard to the nature of the employment to which the training applies.

Education Authorities and Training.

The Blind Persons Act, 1920, definitely lays the duty of providing for the technical education of the blind upon Education Authorities. It says [see section 4 (1) (b)] :—

“ Education Authorities shall make or otherwise secure adequate and suitable provision for the technical education of blind persons ordinarily resident in their areas who are capable of receiving and being benefited by such education.”

Unfortunately nothing is said in the Acts as to how such persons are to be maintained during the period of training. The Scottish Education Department has ruled that it is not within the powers of Education Authorities to make any such payment, though they may contribute towards the cost of the training. The Education Authorities generally throughout Scotland have realized their duty in this matter, and have made no difficulty about paying the fees for training. In most cases institutions have made a charge of £20 per annum, though in some instances the charge has been higher and payment has not been declined.

The question of maintenance presented a real

difficulty. It was not laid down in the Act as the specific duty of any one body, and there was some difference of opinion as to whether the obligation should be borne by Local Authorities (i.e., Town or County Councils) or by Parish Councils. It was obviously undesirable to compel persons to go on to the roll of the poor for such a purpose, and the Local Authorities, acting on the recommendation of the Board of Health, have assumed the duty except in the cases of persons already in receipt of parish relief. This, while satisfactory in the main, has the objection that a blind person has to make application to two authorities, and receive a guarantee of payment from two authorities before his training can commence. This inevitably leads to delay, and may lead to misunderstanding; a simpler method is desirable, and may have to be found.

The Blind Persons Act, 1920.

This Act has hitherto been administered in Scotland by the Scottish Board of Health. If certain Government proposals at present before Parliament are carried into effect, this Board will be converted into a Department with the Secretary of State for Scotland at its head, and with a permanent Secretary in charge.

To advise the Board (or Department) on matters regarding the welfare of the blind the Secretary of State for Scotland has appointed a Scottish Advisory Committee.

The Blind Persons Act applies to Scotland with certain modifications which are to be found in Section 4 of the Act. The application with regard to Education Authorities has already been noted (see page 136). The expression "County Borough" is declared to have the meaning assigned to it in section 132 of the Children's Act, 1908, and the definition of such a burgh in Scotland is one that has, or is entitled to have, a separate police force. These are known as police burghs. References to the Minister of Health and to the Charity Commissioners are to be construed as references to the Scottish Board of Health.

Soon after the Blind Persons Act came into force, the Scottish Board of Health issued to Local Authorities a Memorandum with regard to their duty under the Act to submit schemes detailing how they intended to carry out their new obligations.

The following services were specified :—

- a.* The care of children under school age where home conditions were unsatisfactory.
- b.* Home workers.
- c.* Employment in workshops.
- d.* The provision of hostels for workers.
- e.* The establishment of homes for the care of the aged and infirm blind.
- f.* The welfare of unemployable blind persons.
- g.* Home teaching.
- h.* Registration.

As the question of maintenance during training had not emerged at that time, no reference to this duty was made in the circular.

The common feature of these schemes is that the various Authorities do not propose to carry out the services mentioned in the Blind Persons Act directly themselves, but that they are prepared to work through existing agencies, contributing in various ways to the funds of these agencies. Some of the schemes provide for a *per capita* payment of persons employed in workshops.

The Joint Committee of the West of Scotland Authorities have obtained powers by means of a Provisional Order to take over and administer the affairs of the Glasgow Royal Blind Asylum, so that the Authorities in this combination will now be directly concerned in administering the provisions of the Blind Persons Act.

Government Grants.

Grants are payable to agencies in respect of the following services :—

1. Workshops for the blind.
2. Provision of assistance to home workers.
3. Homes and hostels for the blind.
4. Home teaching.
5. Book production.
6. Miscellaneous.

Workshops.

The expression “workshops” employee means

a blind person regularly employed in or about a workshop for the blind and in receipt of weekly pay at the Trade Union or other standard rate customary in the particular class of work in which the blind person is employed.

Pupils undergoing training are not reckoned as workshop employees.

Registers of attendance of employees must be kept, and a grant of £20 is paid on the average attendance of workers.

Home Workers.

These are defined as adult persons who, for sufficient reasons, are employed elsewhere than in a workshop in occupations usually practised in workshops, but are attached for care, assistance and supervision to an approved agency.

A grant—normally half—is payable in aid of the initial expenditure incurred by an agency in the provision of tools and equipment necessary. "Tools and equipment are defined as the actual instruments necessary in the occupation followed, and do not mean material."

A grant of £20 per home worker is paid, but full grant can only be obtained in the cases of men who earn at least 16/- a week, and of women who can earn 8/- a week.

Homes and Hostels.

A home means a residential institution for the

care and maintenance of adult blind persons who, owing to age or infirmity, are unable to work, and for whom suitable provision in their own homes cannot be made.

Hostels are residential institutions for the provision of board and lodging for blind workers.

A grant is payable to homes at a rate not exceeding £13 per annum in respect of each blind person maintained. In the case of hostels the grant is £5 per annum per person.

To prevent these grants being used to relieve Poor Law Authorities of their responsibilities, a clause is added to the regulations to this effect :—

“ A blind person towards whose maintenance in a home a contribution is, on July 1st, 1919, being paid by any Parish Council, shall not be reckoned as a resident for grant purposes, unless the rate of contribution then being paid in respect of such persons is maintained, nor shall any person admitted to a home at a future date by agreement with the Parish Council be reckoned as a resident for grant purposes, unless the rate of contribution is not less than half of the average cost per head of maintenance in the home.”

Home Teaching.

A home teacher is defined as an approved person paid and employed by an agency to teach adult blind persons in their own homes how to read

embossed type, to read to them and to instruct them in simple forms of home occupation.

By "approved person" is meant one "approved by the Board of Health (or Department)."

A grant not exceeding £78 is paid in respect of each home teacher employed by an agency with the consent of the Board of Health (or Department).

Grant is payable to home teaching agencies at a rate not exceeding £20 per 100 blind persons on the roll of such agency registered in the central register kept at the Board of Health (or Department).

Book Production.

A grant is payable in respect of all literature produced in embossed type at the rate of 2/6 per volume and 2d. per copy of a magazine, periodical, or music sheet.

Miscellaneous.

The Board will be prepared to entertain applications from an agency for a grant towards the expenditure incurred or estimated to be incurred in any other service not already mentioned, which has for its object the betterment of the condition of the blind or the prevention of blindness.

Ophthalmia Neonatorum.

As a result of the Report of the Departmental Committee on the Welfare of the Blind, ophthalmia neonatorum was made compulsorily notifiable as

from Nov. 1st, 1918. The Public Health Circular No. XXIII (1918) issued to Local Authorities at that time is of particular importance, and, as it may not now be easily obtainable, the following significant extract is given :—

Definition of Ophthalmia Neonatorum.—For the purpose of the regulations, ophthalmia neonatorum is held to include any inflammation that occurs in the eyes of an infant within twenty-one days of birth, and is accompanied by a discharge. It is of immense practical importance to recognize ophthalmia neonatorum in the new-born child at the earliest possible moment. To wait for the appearance of marked purulence of discharge is to multiply enormously the danger to the child's vision.

In the regulations issued by the Central Midwives' Board for Scotland, it is laid down that medical assistance must be invoked by the midwife whenever the new-born child shows "any inflammation of, or discharge from, the eyes, however slight." In the majority of such cases the inflammation is due to gonorrhœal infection, and the discharge becomes purulent with extreme rapidity. If the vision is to be saved, diagnosis, notification, and treatment should be carried through without any avoidable delay, and where the eyes show signs of inflammation or slight discharge, the absence of marked "purulence" should never be a reason for postponing or omitting notification. Medical Officers of Health have found that, where undue stress is laid on the "purulence" of the

discharge, many mild cases are left unnotified because, in the midwife's view, the discharge was not "purulent." By the time the discharge is markedly purulent, the disease is already far advanced and dangerous. It is, therefore, important to take every practical measure to secure early notification of all inflamed conditions of the new-born infant's eyes.

Old Age Pensions.

Under the Blind Persons Act, 1920, the statutory age for the receipt of an old age pension in the case of a person who is "so blind as to be unable to perform any work for which eyesight is essential" is reduced from seventy to fifty, and the statutory period of residence in the United Kingdom from twelve years since attaining the age of fifty, to twelve years since attaining the age of thirty.

Pensions officers are authorized to accept as evidence of blindness one of the following :—

1. A certificate from the authorities of an approved school for the blind that the claimant was educated as a blind person at the school.

2. A certificate that the claimant was employed as a blind person at an approved workshop for the blind.

3. A certificate by the authorities of an approved agency for the blind that the claimant is known to them as blind.

If an officer has good reasons to doubt the accuracy of such a certificate, he may appeal to the Scottish Board to disallow the claim, and it is then within the powers of the Board to make an investigation into the case.

As a matter of fact claims have been disallowed, although claimants have been able to produce one of the required certificates.

An officer may also accept as evidence :—

1. Entries from Poor Law records that the claimant has been treated as totally blind by the Poor Law Authorities.

2. Written certificates of total blindness by ex-employer, etc., or a person of standing who knows the claimant personally.

Parish Councils and the Blind.

The Blind Persons Act of 1920 does not relieve Parish Councils of any duties which belonged to them previously under the Poor Law Acts. In the case of any blind child or adult who is on the roll of the poor the Parish Council must educate and maintain it. The Parish Council is not entitled to withhold Parish Relief on the ground that the recipient is an old age pensioner.

Statistics as to Blindness in Scotland.

A central register of the blind in Scotland is carefully kept by the Scottish Board of Health.

The following figures are taken from the register for the year ending March 31st, 1926 :—

Total number of Blind persons in Scotland, 6,639.

These may be classified as :

Of School age and under	359
Employed in Institutions	576
Otherwise employed	899
Under training	349
Untrained employable	292
Unemployable	4,164

Or according to age :

Between	0—5	11
„	6—16	348
„	17—30	685
„	31—50	1,415
„	51—70	2,835
„	71 and over	1,345

Or according to sex :

Male	3,373
Female	3,266

CHAPTER XI

APPARATUS FOR THE BLIND

By EDITH M. JONES.

FOR the sake of clarity and in order to facilitate reference by the student, the above subject is grouped into six sections :—

1. Typewriting and typewriters.
2. Script-writing and appliances.
3. Appliances used in the teaching of Braille.
4. Apparatus found to be useful in teaching blind women.
5. Apparatus of a recreative character.
6. Miscellaneous articles.

In describing the various pieces of apparatus, it is impossible within the limits of this article to enter into a minute descriptions or to supply full details and instructions as to their use. While this list is a fairly comprehensive one, it does not claim to be exhaustive. Where possible, particulars as to size, material, etc., are given, but as the prices of commodities in the present day are in a constant state of fluctuation, it would be inadvisable to include them here. Those prices, however, which are indicated, have been inserted merely as a guide to the student, and must only be taken to mean approximate cost, subject to revision from time to time. The would-be purchaser is recommended to consult the most recent

catalogues—books, Braille music, and appliances, —issued by the National Institute for the Blind, Great Portland Street, London, W.1, and the Royal School for the Blind, Craigmillar Park, Edinburgh.

SECTION I.

Typewriting and Typewriters.

Undoubtedly typewriting is the ideal method of communication between blind and seeing, and it should be taught whenever possible. It enables the blind person to conduct his own affairs, both business and private, better than by any other means. Its disadvantage lies in the fact that typewriters are expensive, their cost putting them far beyond the purchasing power of the majority. The home teacher, therefore, may have very little opportunity to display his knowledge in this subject, but exceptional cases may be met with, and for these it is well to be prepared.

The great aim in teaching the pupil typewriting must be to render him as independent as possible of sighted assistance. Therefore he should possess a thorough knowledge of the keyboard, should know how to set margins, arrange spacing, change ribbon, clean type, adjust paper guides, insert paper, and be able to tell when the sheet is full. He should also be given a lesson on the care of the machine. It is almost impossible for a blind person to oil the more intricate parts of the mechanism; therefore, in the best interests of typist and machine, this should be done by a

sighted person, preferably a mechanic, who will also overhaul the machine.

In the selection of a typewriter great care and judgment are needed, and it would be well to call in the advice of an expert rather than take too great a risk in this matter. Cheap typewriters are by no means the best, for not infrequently their alignment is faulty, and this cannot be perceived by a blind person, nor the mischief thereby caused easily rectified.

A few of the chief points to be borne in mind in selecting a machine are simplicity of construction, durability, and ease of manipulation, while a machine which permits corrections to be made easily is invaluable.

There are many makes of typewriters upon the market, some of which may be as admirably fitted to meet the requirements of the blind as those hereafter referred to.

Experience has proved—and it is the unanimous opinion of those who should know—that the Hammond, the Remington, and the Underwood machines can all be successfully operated by the blind, many of whom are able to do quite intricate tabulated work upon these typewriters.

A few paragraphs concerning each of the above-mentioned typewriters will enable the student to judge their merits for himself and to compare their values, advantages and disadvantages.

Very good re-builds of all these machines may be obtained at considerably reduced prices, and answer the purpose adequately. The National

Institute for the Blind should be consulted in all matters appertaining to the purchase of typewriters, as the Institute has made special arrangements with the leading makers of machines suitable for the blind.

1. *Hammond Typewriter.*

Many people who have had experience in its operation for years claim this to be the typewriter best suited for the use of the blind person. This statement refers to the *older* rather than the most recent model, as of late all so-called "improvements" have tended towards bringing the writing into direct visibility, and this has led to alterations in construction which have proved a hindrance rather than otherwise.

The Hammond is easy of manipulation and, owing to its construction, a letter written on it by a beginner is equal in appearance to that written by an expert. This cannot be so when, as in the case of all "bar" machines, the impression is the direct result of "touch." Its almost instantaneous changeability of type is of equal value to the linguist, the mathematician, and the commercial manipulator. Paper of any width can be inserted in the carriage, owing to its open ends. This is of great value to the blind, who may occasionally have to fill in large forms, or tables, which would be impossible of accomplishment on a "bar" machine. It is easy to change the ribbon and to clean all the vital working parts. Until the introduction by the principal makers of their "Portable

Models," the Hammond was the most portable machine, with the exception of the "Blick."

There is a lifetime's wear in a Hammond treated with reasonable care. The writing does not take place on a platen, which is always deteriorating, as is the case in all "bar" machines.

The Hammond is not such a good machine for typing large numbers of carbon copies at one operation as are "bar" machines, and because of this, and the fact that the business employer now so often calls for this kind of work, professional typists should receive training on a "bar" machine; but for the general purposes of everyday life, and in particular for correspondence, the Hammond is an ideal medium of communication.

All particulars as to price, etc., may be obtained from The Hammond Typewriter Company, 75, Queen Victoria Street, London, E.C.4.

2. Remington Typewriter.

In some institutions for the blind this machine is given preference, and it can certainly hold its own with either of the others mentioned here. It has a standard keyboard, a shift for capitals at each side of keyboard, a back-spacer, a variable line spacer, an automatic ribbon reverse, an erasing attachment, and a Braille scale, is easy of manipulation, designed for durability, and is capable of turning out excellent work.

Model No. 12 is known as the "Silent Remington," and it lives up to its name, for all unnecessary noise has been eliminated.

There is also a "Portable Remington," the most compact machine produced. Its keyboard resembles that of the larger machine in every respect ; the action is easy, the operation simple ; there are adjustable marginal stops, a two-colour ribbon, and a shift lock. It is about 9 lbs. in weight when in its case, which measures four inches in height. It occupies less cubic space than any other "Portable" machine.

3. *Underwood Typewriter.*

This machine has been awarded many distinctions, including the "Elliott Cresson" Gold Medal for ingenuity, skill, and perfection of workmanship, given by "The Franklin Institute," Pennsylvania, the highest honour which this Institute could bestow.

For the blind it appears to be one of the best "bar" machines in the market, and is preferred by a blind typist of the writer's acquaintance—one who has had long and varied experience with all kinds of manuscript and tabulated work in a typewriting office—to any other machine used. Its advantages are many. It has a standard keyboard, back-spacer, variable line spacer, inbuilt tabulator, central stop, shift key for capitals at right and left of keyboard, automatic ribbon reverse, and an automatic lock device at the end of each line which effectually prevents the striking of one letter upon another. It is a visible writer, has the least number of parts in its construction, and is therefore easy to clean and to keep in order.

Its action is almost frictionless, and it has a very light touch owing to the fact that there is very little resistance from "the universal bar." The typist can operate it for hours without feeling physically tired. Its margin stops are in front and are easily adjusted by a blind person, whilst its mechanism is so true that, should a mistake be discovered on the lines near the top after the typist has reached the bottom of the sheet, he can roll back and make the correction perfectly. No. 4 Model takes $10\frac{1}{2}$ inch paper, and gives a writing line of eight inches with seventy-six characters in each ; while No. 5 is similar in width of paper and length of line but has eighty-four characters. Larger machines to take very wide paper are obtainable.

Portable Underwood.

There is now a "Portable Underwood," which weighs in case $8\frac{3}{4}$ lbs. The keyboard is the same as the larger machine and the carriage rides on roller bearings supplemented by ball bearings. Either one or two-colour ribbon can be used and the machine is effective for carbon or stencil work.

SECTION II.

Script-Writing Appliances.

Quite a number of people lose their sight in middle life, and it is to be presumed that they were able to write previous to the time of that misfortune. Typewriters must be considered a luxury, and are certainly not within the purchasing

power of the majority of blind persons. Yet the blind are just as anxious to conduct their own correspondence as are the sighted, and they can continue to do so if only some tangible aid be provided to meet and overcome the difficulty of keeping straight and of addressing envelopes. This aid is given, and the need met, by the various "script-writing" or, it may be clearer to say, the pen and pencil appliances, now upon the market. A brief description will be given of the best known of these :—

1. *The Portland Frame.*

The Portland Frame, size $8\frac{1}{2}$ by $10\frac{1}{2}$ inches, is made of hard wood, hinged on the left-hand side, the paper being held in position by two small pins. Stretched across horizontally are elastic lines which serve to keep the writing straight, whilst allowing for upward and downward loops. The left forefinger follows the pencil to assist in correct spacing. This frame is made for quarto size paper only.

2. *The Millard Metal Frame.*

This is made of black japanned tin, and is used in the same way as the Portland. The paper is held in position with the aid of a metal clip which will be found attached to the right side of the frame. It is made in two sizes—ordinary note paper size and quarto.

3. *The "Troup" Frame.*

This guide is made to fit the small-size interlining Braille board, and is moved down the board from

hole to hole as each line is completed. Instead of the two rows of cells for Braille, two elastic bands are stretched across a smooth metal plate as guiding lines for pen or pencil.

4. *The Venetian Frame.*

This frame is made in quarto size, 10 by 8 inches, only. It is a simple device which enables a blind person to write with pen or pencil. Each line is guided by turning down a section of the sheath which rests on the paper.

5. *Raised Line Notepaper.*

This may be obtained by the quire (24 sheets), and is used as in the ordinary method of writing, the finger following the raised line. It is not recommended for use with ink.

SECTION III.

Appliances Used in the Teaching of Braille.

1. *The Braillette Board.*

This is made in the form of a wooden box with thirty-six dot cells drilled right through the block. Each board is supplied with one hundred metal pegs, with which the Braille characters can be formed. When the lid is closed and the box turned over, the character as it should be written is exposed. Its size is $8\frac{1}{2}$ by $3\frac{1}{2}$ by 1 inches. Extra pegs can be obtained.

The Braillette Board is particularly useful in teaching blind adults whose sense of touch is undeveloped. By its means they can obtain a

very clear idea of the shape of the character ; when known, they can then make it for themselves ; while the teacher can alter the order of the letters at any moment, and can illustrate the formation of contractions, a very great advantage over the embossed metal alphabet sheets.

2. The Metal Alphabet Sheets.

These consist of large sheets of metal, upon which all the signs used in Braille are stereotyped. There are two kinds. One has the signs in giant dots, while the other reproduces them in small size ordinary Braille. They cannot be compared in educational value with the Braillette Board, their chief recommendations being cheapness, durability, and the fact that they demonstrate clearly the principles upon which Braille is founded.

3. Giant-Dot Guides.

The function of these is obvious. They can be adjusted for use on the ordinary small-size Braille board, and special styles with somewhat blunted points are obtainable for writing. There is also a pocket-size Giant-Dot Frame.

4. Braille Writing-Frames.

These are made of hard wood with brass guides, in two sizes ; full instructions how to use them are supplied with each frame. The guides have two lines of cells and the frames are interlining frames, which means that Braille can be written on both sides of the sheet of paper. Their recommenda-

tion is their cheapness, but they have this disadvantage: each Braille character must be reversed when writing, as the writing is done from right to left, and the reading from left to right. This reversing is apt to be confusing to the blind adult who has lost his sight late in life.

There is also a nine-line interlining Braille frame upon the market; while two-line and four-line interlining pocket frames are supplied, also post-card frames.

5. *Styles and Eraser.*

There are four varieties of styles:—

(a) Moll's Safety Style, with screw cap, for carrying in the pocket.

(b) Mushroomed-shaped Style.

(c) Saddle-back Style.

(d) Ordinary Style.

The eraser is made of steel. The narrow end should be used for erasing a single dot, the wide end for erasing a row of dots.

6. *The Stainsby-Wayne Braille Writing Machine.*

This machine is designed to write Braille on both sides of the paper. By means of six keys the entire character can be made in one operation by the writer. The Braille writer consists of a folding board on which the machine is placed. The keys automatically travel from right to left, along a carriage way, as the Braille is written. A bell gives warning when the end of a line is being reached. The binding margin is made auto-

matically, and the carriage may be released and set at any point of the slide, thereby saving much time. The paper is not rolled, but remains flat. All parts are strongly made, so that thick paper may be used. The case of a large machine measures 15 by 10 by $3\frac{1}{2}$ inches, and is very convenient. The weight of the machine and case together is $5\frac{1}{2}$ lbs.

At present one model of this machine is available, namely, large-size, for paper measuring 10 by $13\frac{1}{2}$ inches. It is an interlining machine, with ordinary keys; this is of great advantage, as it is only necessary to know "Braille as it is read" in order to be able to write. Full instructions in Braille and ink print are supplied with every machine. Reverse key models are now available.

Several modifications have been made recently, the most important being the provision of an additional rack which ensures that perfect registration of every character, thus eliminating "ghost" dots. There is also a double arm to the space-bar which gives this part of the machine greater rigidity.

7. The Stainsby-Wayne Braille Shorthand Typewriter.

The machine is designed to take down verbatim reports or letters from dictation. A speed of eighty to one hundred and forty words per minute can be attained. The matter is recorded on a strip of paper, automatically passed through the machine from a roll, each roll being capable of

taking fifty ordinary business letters. By a simple device the space between words is made automatically whilst striking the last letter of each word, thereby saving twenty per cent. of time. The latest improvement is the addition of a roller clutch which prevents any backward movement of the paper, thus giving very accurate spacing. Rubber rings have been abolished, and the machine is, as far as possible, fool-proof. It works with very little noise, and a case has been designed to deaden the sound. This case, which also keeps the machine clean, is of polished walnut, with piano-shaped lid, opening to expose only the keys. It is lined throughout. Full instructions in Braille and ink-print are supplied with every Braille shorthand typewriter.

A special Braille shorthand system and the "Typists' Manual" are published in Braille by the National Institute. Ink-print copies may also be obtained from the same source.

8. Braille Paper.

This can be obtained in thick, medium, and thin quality, and in sizes to suit the various Braille frames and machines. The size should always be stated when ordering.

9. Braille and Moon Books.

Braille and Moon books are published and sold by the National Institute for the Blind, 224, Great Portland Street, London, W. Braille books are published and sold by the Royal School for the

Blind, West Craigmillar Park, Edinburgh ; while Moon and Braille books, Braille music, and books in foreign languages may be had on loan from the National Library for the Blind, Westminster, London, S.W.1.

Braille music—organ, piano, violin, and vocal—is published and sold by the National Institute for the Blind, London, and the Royal School for the Blind, Edinburgh.

Detailed catalogues of the above-mentioned books and music will be supplied on application to the respective secretaries of the above-named institutions.

SECTION IV.

Apparatus Useful in Teaching Blind Women.

1. The Needle Threader.

This consists of a small piece of fine wire, so bent that the looped end comes to a sharp point, while the two ends are fastened into and kept in position by a little metal receptacle which acts as a handle. To thread a needle, the sharp-pointed looped end of the wire is put through the needle's eye as far as it will go with ease. Freed from the pressure in the eye, the loop now expands by itself. Pass the cotton through this expanded loop. Now hold needle in left hand, and with the right hand give the metal handle a sharp pull to the right. If successfully done, the handle brings the loop with it, and the loop, in coming, draws the cotton through the eye of the needle.

2. *Calyx-eyed Needles.*

These are so made that there is a little spring at the end of the eye furthest from the point of the needle. The pressure of the cotton upon the spring is sufficient to force it open, thus permitting the cotton to pass into the eye. These needles are made in all sizes from 5 to 7, sold by many large drapers and by the National Institute.

3. *Eigo Needles.*

These are somewhat similar to the Calyx, but have the spring on the side instead of at the end of the eye. They are threaded by pressing the cotton against the spring, but they have the advantage over the Calyx in this respect: they do not come unthreaded as easily owing to the pressure of the thimble against the spring. They are manufactured by Messrs. Bartleet of Redditch, in sizes from 4 to 8; with eight needles in each packet, at 14/- per gross, and twelve needles in a packet, at 20/- per gross; they cost 2d. per packet if bought singly.

4. *The Flexiknit.*

The use of the Flexiknit does away with the necessity for a multiplicity of knitting needles. The article can be made entirely with one needle. This is circular in shape; the knitting is actually done on a rigid piece of steel about four inches long. When the stitch is knitted, it slips along on a flexible piece of wire, travelling round the circle as the knitter proceeds, until it comes round

for use in the next round. The Flexiknit possesses many advantages for the blind. It avoids the use of long knitting needles. It reduces the risk of dropping stitches to a minimum. It can be packed into a very small compass, and can be confidently recommended for use when knitting large and cumbersome articles. The Flexiknit is made in various sizes, price 1/6, and is sold by most large fancy-work shops.

5. *The Skein-holder.*

The Skein-holder, as its name implies, is designed to hold a skein of any size. It is made of metal, and works very much on the principle of a collapsible coat-hanger. When folded, it is about eight inches long, and can be drawn out each way from the centre to take any length skein. It is fitted with a grip and a piece of soft material. To use, place the soft material either on the back of a chair or edge of a table (this is to prevent the grip from scratching the furniture), fit the grip which supports the skein-holder firmly on to the material, draw out holder to the required size, place skein on holder, and wind. The holder is placed on a pivot in the grip, and revolves as the skein is wound.

6. *The Wool-winder.*

The winder is intended to act as a foundation for the wool or silk being wound. It is made of wood, steel, bone or celluloid, and is usually hexagonal or octagonal in shape. It promotes

regularity in winding, and is especially recommended for winding silk.

Both Skein-holder and Wool-winder are obtainable at most fancy shops, the price of the former being about 2/6, and that of the latter varying with the material of which it is made.

SECTION V.

Apparatus of a Recreative Character.

It is impossible here to enumerate all the games obtainable. Full details and prices will be found in the most recent edition of the apparatus catalogue issued by the National Institute for the Blind. Let it suffice here to mention that specially Braille-marked playing and patience cards, dominoes, draughts, chess, puzzles, and several other interesting games are on sale, and cannot fail to afford very great pleasure to those blind people who have endless leisure at their disposal. Full instructions in Braille and ink-print are supplied with most games, and books on these and other amusements are obtainable.

These various kinds of recreation should be encouraged by the home teacher, as they form a means of bringing the blind pupils into social intercourse with seeing friends.

SECTION VI.

Miscellaneous.

I. *Brass Foot Rule.*

This is a useful rule with $\frac{1}{8}$ inch divisions cut along one edge and $\frac{1}{2}$ inch divisions along the other

edge. To be more easily recognised the slots of the $\frac{1}{2}$ inch and 1 inch are of different depth. In addition a single raised dot marks every $\frac{1}{2}$ inch and three dots mark every 1 inch.

2. Tape Measure.

This is made of strong pliable linen, 60 inches long, every $\frac{1}{2}$ inch being indicated by a metal stud, every 1 inch by an eyelet, every 6 inches by a double stud, and every 12 inches by a double eyelet. The number of feet is also indicated by metal studs, forming the Braille numerical sign.

3. Gloves for the Deaf-Blind.

These gloves are lettered, and suggest a method by which a person unacquainted with the manual alphabet for the deaf-blind can communicate with such an one. The letters are arranged in alphabetical order, one on each finger joint, with figures on the nails. Should the deaf-blind person be also dumb, he can speak to the sighted by simply pointing out the letters of his message with the index finger of either hand on his own gloved hands. These gloves can be marked by anybody ; chamois-leather gloves are recommended for the purpose.

4. Apparatus for Chair-Caning.

The "Knock" chair caning frame is now obtainable. It is a wooden board containing eight examples of chair-caning described in the text book "Chair-Caning," by A. G. Knock.

Both frame and book are obtainable from the National Institute for the Blind.

5. *Pianoforte Tuners' Tools.*

Several useful tools for the assistance of pianoforte tuners can be supplied by the National Institute for the Blind. These consist of a vellum hinging tool, screw grip, boring-out tool and a felt-cutting guide.

6. *Braille Watches.*

A genuine "Waltham" watch, in heavy silver hunter case, with jewelled movements, is on sale at the National Institute. It has an enamel dial, the quarter-hours represented by two small dots, the remaining numbers by one large dot, and the hands sufficiently strengthened to meet the requirements of the blind. These watches can be supplied in three grades. Cheaper watches in silver and metal can also be obtained, also a lady's wristlet watch in silver hunter case is now available. Gold watches are made specially to order. A number of firms supply watches with special dials and hands. The National Institute for the Blind specialises in watches and sells *without profit* so as to give the blind the greatest advantage.

In addition to the above, Repeater watches can also be obtained in silver case only. There are the *Minute Repeaters*, which chime hours and quarters and minutes, and the *Quarter Repeater*, which chimes hours and quarters only.

CHAPTER XII

NATIONAL HEALTH INSURANCE,
UNEMPLOYMENT INSURANCE AND
WIDOWS', ORPHANS' AND OLD AGE
PENSIONS

*Liability to Health Insurance and Contributory
Pensions Insurance.*

GENERALLY speaking, so far as blind persons and their employers are concerned, there are three categories of employment under which they may be compulsorily insurable under the National Health Insurance and Contributory Pensions Acts.

1. *Employment under a contract of service*—except where the employment is otherwise than by way of manual labour and the remuneration from *that employment* (including the value to the employed person of allowances in kind provided free by the employer such as board, lodging, etc.) is at a rate *exceeding* in value £250 a year.

A “Contract of Service” means the relation which exists between a master and his servant, i.e., that the employer (or master) has the right (though he may not exercise it in practice) to the personal services of the employee (or servant) and to the control of the method of the performance of those services. Where, however, an employed

person is fully maintained by *his employer* (i.e., receives free of charge *from the employer* all requisite lodging, food, clothing, medical attendance and other necessities) *and does not receive any money payment from the employer*, the employment is not insurable.

Persons employed in a blind workshop (other than blind trainees whose position is dealt with later) are normally employed under a contract of service and insurable under the Acts.

2. *Employment as an apprentice with money payment* (i.e., a wage or some other money payment in respect of services rendered). For this purpose "apprentice" may be taken to mean any trainee or other person who renders services in return for instruction in any trade, business or profession. Apprentices *not* in receipt of "money payment" (as defined above) are not insurably employed.

In the application of the foregoing paragraph to blind trainees it may be taken as a general rule that *Adult Trainees* in receipt of a money payment (whether by way of maintenance, allowance or otherwise) are not insurably employed unless payment made to them is in return for the work done and is roughly proportionate to its market value. On the other hand *Junior Trainees* who receive a money payment are usually insurably employed because in their case the presumption is that the payment made to them is in return for and in relation to the work done or service rendered by them and their position is more similar to that of ordinary young appren-

tices in receipt of juvenile wages. But it should be observed that this general rule is not in the National Health Insurance Act itself but is merely an application of the Act to the special conditions obtaining in connection with the employment of the blind. Cases of doubt or difficulty as to the insurance position of any trainee should be referred to the local National Health Insurance Inspector.

3. *Outworkers.* An outworker is defined in the National Health Insurance Act as a person, male or female, to whom articles of material are given out (for the purposes of the trade or business of the person who gives them out) to be made up, cleaned, washed, altered, ornamented, finished, repaired or adapted for sale in his or her own home or on other premises not under the control or management of the person who has given out the articles or materials. This definition will normally include Homeworkers, and it should be observed that a charitable institution may carry on a "trade or business" and that those words do not necessarily imply that the employer must be a tradesman or manufacturer. On the other hand the definition requires that the articles or materials should be given out to the worker by the employer and, accordingly, where the articles or materials are genuinely sold to the worker, he is not an "outworker" within the definition.

A Special Order made under the provisions of the National Health Insurance Act provides that where work is given out by or on behalf of any charitable or philanthropic institution to a blind

outworker who is not wholly or mainly dependent for his livelihood on his earnings in respect of that work, such employment is not insurable.

Unemployment Insurance.

Liability to unemployment insurance generally follows health insurance but with the following differences—employment in domestic service when not for the purposes of the employer's business and employment in agriculture are excluded from unemployment insurance; outworkers are excluded from unemployment insurance unless it can be shown that they are employed under a contract of service (a very rare thing); old age pensioners and blind pensioners under the Old Age Pensions Acts are also excluded from unemployment insurance.

Sighted Guides.

The employment of persons who merely act as guides for the blind, and are employed either by a charitable society or by the blind person himself, is excepted from Unemployment Insurance as being employment in domestic service. Where, however, the employment of a guide includes duties other than guidance, e.g., the making out of receipts for money collected, record of persons visited, or assisting the blind person in the sale of goods, the domestic service exception does not apply and Unemployment Insurance contributions are payable unless the guide is employed by, and is the husband or the wife of, the blind person.

Home Teachers.

Home teachers who are employed under a contract of service are insurable both for Health and Unemployment Insurance.

Contributions.

(a) *Health Insurance.* The value of the stamp that has now normally to be placed upon the Health Insurance card (1/6 for men, 1/1 for women) covers all the benefits provided in the Health Insurance Acts, and the Widows', Orphans' and Old Age Contributory Pensions Act, 1925.

Until 2nd January, 1928, all persons between the ages of 16 and 70 years who are employed within the meaning of the Acts are required to have contributions paid. At present no contributions are payable in respect of persons over 70.

As from 2nd January, 1928, contributions at the ordinary rates cease to be payable in respect of employed persons on their attaining the age of 65, and contributions at special rates (9d. for men, 7d. for women) which are equivalent to the employers' share of the ordinary contributions then become payable.

Further details in regard to the payment of contributions are given in official leaflets (Pamphlet A, containing general information, and Leaflet 25, dealing especially with outworkers), which can be obtained on application to the Ministry of Health, Insurance Department, or the local National Health Insurance Inspector.

(b) *Unemployment Insurance.* A separate con-

tribution is required from persons insurable under the Unemployment Insurance Acts. This is paid by means of a stamp that has to be affixed to another card termed an "Unemployment Book," which may be obtained from the nearest Local Office of the Ministry of Labour.

Benefits.

The normal benefits of the Health Insurance scheme are probably well known and need not be specified in detail. Insured persons become entitled to medical benefit on entering into insurance and should apply for this benefit to the Local Insurance Committees. The money benefits are (except in the case of Deposit Contributors) administered through Approved Societies and are subject to certain waiting periods. It should be remembered that it rests with the Approved Society of which an insured person is a member to determine in the first instance, whether benefit is payable, and the rules of all Societies give members a right of appeal to an impartial tribunal in the case of dispute. Provision has been made for medical certificates required for the payment of Sickness and Disablement Benefit to be supplied by insurance doctors free of charge, and such certificates should normally be obtained once a week, but where the illness is, in the opinion of the doctor, likely to last some time, certificates can be furnished covering a longer period. It is important that insured persons should comply with the rules regarding certificates and claims.

Some question has been raised regarding sickness or disablement benefit of persons undergoing training while in an institution. If the Approved Society is satisfied that by reason of blindness the member is incapable of remunerative work there is no reason why benefit should not be claimed during training. It is possible, however, that some Societies might regard a Blind Institution as being a "Hospital" within the meaning of the Health Insurance Act, in which case the benefit is not payable direct to the member while he remains an inmate, but can be paid in whole or in part to dependants, if any, or if no dependants, can be applied in various ways for the benefit of the member. So far as benefit is not expended as above, the balance will be payable to the member (in a lump sum or in instalments, at the Society's discretion) on leaving the Institution.

Additional Benefits.

Approved Societies are periodically valued and where surpluses are disclosed, as they are in the vast majority of cases, the Societies may submit schemes for adoption of one or more of the specified additional benefits. Members are entitled to additional benefits when a period of approximately five years has elapsed since the date of their last admission to the Society. The most popular of these additional benefits are Hospital Treatment, Convalescent Home Treatment, Dentistry, Ophthalmic Treatment and payments towards the cost of Surgical Appliances. In the case of dental

benefit it is provided that it must cover the whole cost of dental treatment and 50% at least of the cost of dentures. Similarly with regard to ophthalmic benefit it is provided that the whole cost of ophthalmic treatment, and not less than half cost of optical appliances on an agreed scale should be paid by the Approved Society. Another additional benefit commonly adopted by Societies is an increased payment of Sickness, Disablement and Maternity Benefits.

In view of the large surpluses that have become available, varying with each Society, it is important that those interested in blind persons who might need any one of the above benefits should find out from the Approved Society of which the person is a member whether it can be granted. Application has normally to be made in the first instance by the insured person to the Society, and in regard to some of the benefits a doctor's certificate, as to the need for the benefit, is required. If any difficulty is encountered the local Inspector should be consulted.

Unemployment Insurance Benefits.

Blind persons who have been employed on work which was insurable under the Unemployment Insurance Acts, and who are not in receipt of a Pension under the Old Age Pensions Acts as extended by the Blind Persons Act, 1920, are eligible for unemployment benefit on the same conditions as other insured contributors. Unemployment benefit may be obtained direct from

a local office of the Ministry of Labour or through an Association or Society which has an arrangement with the Ministry of Labour for the payment of such benefit. In order to claim unemployment benefit the insured person must get his unemployment book from his employer and lodge it at a local office of the Ministry of Labour. These offices are established throughout the country. The rates of unemployment benefit are :—

Men	18/-	a week
Women	15/-	„
Boys...	...	7/6	„
Girls	6/-	„

An additional 5/- a week is paid in respect of certain dependent adults, and a further 2/- a week in respect of each dependent child under the age of 14 or 16 if in full time attendance at a day school. A leaflet, U.I.L.8, setting forth in detail the rates of benefit and conditions for the receipt of benefit, may be obtained at any local office of the Ministry of Labour.

Widows', Orphans and Old Age Pensions.

The new Act makes provision for the payment of Pensions based on an insurance contribution test. The details as regards widows and orphans are set out in leaflets W.P.3 and W.P.4, which can be obtained at any Post Office. Generally speaking it is required that the widow's deceased husband shall have paid 104 contributions, that if he had been more than four years in insurance there must have been an average of not less than

26 contributions in each of the last three contribution years before death and that he should have resided in Great Britain for two years immediately prior to death. With regard to men who died before the 4th January, 1926, it was also required that the widow should have one child under the age of 14 or under the age of 16 if still at school. Under this Act, Old Age Pensions based on an insurance test (instead of the means test provided in the Old Age Pension Act) both for men and women would come into operation on 2nd July, 1926, for persons over 70, and on the 2nd January, 1928, for persons over 65.

It should be noted that a person in receipt of a Blind Persons' Pension under the Old Age Pension Act could receive also (if qualified) an Old Age Pension between the ages of 65 and 70 under the Contributory Pensions Act. A widow entitled to a Widows' Pension under the Widows', Orphans' and Old Age Contributory Pension Act could receive this in addition to the Blind Person's Pension.

Not more than one Old Age Pension, whether under the Widows', Orphans' and Old Age Contributory Pension Act or the Old Age Pensions Acts (1908-1924), could be paid to any one person. A widow entitled to a Widow's Pension could not also receive an Old Age Pension under the Widows', Orphans' and Old Age Contributory Pension Act.

CHAPTER XIII

SUGGESTIONS TO TEACHERS

By Miss M. M. R. GARRAWAY.

WE can most of us look backward to our school-days and remember those of our teachers of whom we say, "They taught well." We are conscious that under their guidance we found it easier to understand, easier to remember, easier to make use of certain facts than it was when similar facts were presented to us by others. Again, when we listen now to teachers who really know their work, the same thing strikes us; it all seems so straightforward and simple. How are these good results achieved? What are the ideas underlying this work which commends itself to us?

Firstly, after having given his pupil some indication of what he is about to teach, the experienced teacher will set himself to find out what his pupil already knows, the point from which he will have to start his new work. He will not waste his time in unduly stressing what is already known. He may, and probably will, draw attention to some points which are already familiar to his pupil, because these are the points to which he will attach the new matter. He may spend some considerable time in doing this, or it may be a

matter of a few minutes only ; it all depends on circumstances. A whole session may be necessary for thus preparing a pupil's mind, or it may be nothing more than recalling in a few words, or by questioning, work previously done. It is, however, an absolutely necessary step.

The next thing is to bring to the pupil's attention the fact that you want to teach. You may tell him this fact straight out, or you may get him to observe and discover for himself what the next step should be, or from what you say to him you can get him to infer it. . Frequently the first course is the only reasonable one to take, the second and third leading to fruitless loss of time. Experience and good judgment are the only guides in this matter ; no definite rule can be laid down, but by some method the thing to be taught must be made to stand out clearly and definitely, whether it be, say, a Braille contraction or the next step in a piece of handwork.

Now we do not always grasp at once every fact that is told us, and sometimes when we think we have done so, we find later that our understanding was but partial. The teacher's object now is to make the pupil thoroughly grasp the point before him, and to do this he draws his attention to various aspects of it—it is like " A," unlike " B," in some respects similar to " C " ; or, can be used like " C " but never like " A " ; and so his pupil considers the point till he knows it in the sense that he can use it.

The next step is to get the pupil to summarise

the teaching—to express clearly and comprehensively the whole fact—to sum up—to say what he has learnt or what he is going to do.

Lastly, the pupil must put his knowledge into practice, must attempt the piece of handwork, write the piece of Braille using the new contraction, give examples of the rule just learnt.

Think carefully over any bit of good teaching you have heard and you will find these are the steps generally followed. They are not always immediately apparent. 1 may be but a reference to the last lesson, 2 and 3 may repeat themselves many times before being followed by 4; 4 varies so much that you can hardly recognise it, but 5 must come to make a complete whole; the new knowledge must be usable and must be used.

Plan out your lessons carefully, consider the whole on the ground you want to cover and decide in what order you will treat your subject and how much you will attempt in a single lesson. This last point will depend largely on your pupil. Avoid the mistake of allotting too much; more than you can adequately deal with in the time at your disposal. A little well known is worth more than much half known. See that your pupil remembers the previous lesson before taking him on to new ground. It is the thorough work which yields the best results and which gives your pupil confidence.

When introducing a new field of interest—some handwork, Braille or Moon, whatever it may be—choose an easy step first. For instance, for those

who are trying for the first time to read Braille with their fingers, a group of several dots is more easily recognised than scattered dots are ; so the sign for “ for ” or the letter “ g ” may well be taught before the letters which precede them in the alphabet. Examine your teaching carefully from this point of view. In handwork you would often do well to start the work so that your inexperienced pupil has something to hold, a firm piece of work on which to build ; but avoid the mistake of continuing this help when he is able to attack the more difficult beginning. Nothing succeeds like success ; when a beginner finds he is making headway he is encouraged and emboldened, and his progress is likely to be considerably increased. It is therefore very important that confidence should be developed, and by making the first steps as simple as possible this end is likely to be achieved.

These points are to be kept in view when dealing with those who have just lost their sight, especially older people who are often, very naturally, much depressed. They are so conscious of what they have lost that they are apt to ignore what still remains and to doubt whether they can at all adapt themselves to their changed conditions. It is difficult to get them even to make an effort, and what you say to them carries little weight if you yourself see, for they feel you are on a different footing and unable to speak with authority. Here, if you can bring such into touch with someone else who has experienced what they are

going through and has been able to rise above the adverse conditions, you may be able to do them good service. There may be a blind colleague who would visit the individual in question, or failing that, many a blind man or woman would gladly help a fellow sufferer over his roughest time. If you can once get him to feel there is something yet left for which to hope and work and which is within his reach, the battle is half won, but you must do everything in your power to avoid discouragement during the initial efforts.

Your manner of attack will depend very greatly on your pupil. With a very young child you will use what I may call the play-way, but with a pupil of developed mind you can draw attention to the system that underlies your subject, a course that would be useless with a young child, but which greatly adds to the interest of one who can understand it. This is very true in the teaching of Braille.

We all learn very much by imitation, and blind people are no exception to the general rule, but for them the opportunities are more limited. Remembering this, you must endeavour to increase those opportunities in every possible way; you must get them to place their hands on your hands and thus to notice the movements you make. This is not to say you need not describe those movements very carefully. You must cultivate the habit of exact description of what you want your pupil to do, much more exact description than you find necessary in everyday

life where you depend more upon showing than telling ; but remember that a little showing is often worth more than much telling.

Let me close my suggestions by advising all teachers to carry out this principle and to avail themselves of every opportunity of seeing good teaching ; they will find the practice most helpful.

CHAPTER XIV

*SOME SUGGESTIONS FOR THE
PREVENTION OF THE CAUSES OF
BLINDNESS*

By AN OPHTHALMIC SURGEON.

BLINDNESS is caused at different ages by different conditions, and I propose to start right at the beginning and work through life.

Perhaps the most important condition predisposing to blindness is venereal disease in the parents, the child being thus infected before birth. If syphilis in the parents or gonorrhœa in the mother could be prevented or even adequately and thoroughly treated, the number of cases of blindness would be diminished enormously. This, then, is the first question that has to be tackled. Much has already been done by the formation of venereal clinics, but there must still be very many people who do not avail themselves of the benefit of the treatment to be had at these clinics. It is largely a question of education, and those who mix freely with people and get to know them intimately, especially the women of the poorer classes, may often get the opportunity of giving advice on this matter. Again, if one comes across an expectant mother in whom there is the slightest suspicion of either syphilitic or gonorrhœal infection she should be urged to consult her doctor

at once, or go to an ante-natal clinic for proper treatment. Where ante-natal clinics are not available they should undoubtedly be formed as soon as possible.

It is the proper treatment of gonorrhœa before the confinement that is going to stop ophthalmia neonatorum, and the early and thorough treatment of syphilis in the parents that is going to prevent Interstitial Keratitis and the other ocular manifestations of congenital syphilis. Not only does syphilis cause blindness in the children, but also optic atrophy and other conditions in later life in the parents.

In an ideal State, the bride and bridegroom would have to show a certificate to say that their Wasserman reactions were negative, at the same time as they produce the certificate for their banns, and in America it has been suggested that prospective couples should be required to take an oath that there is no hereditary blindness in the family before marriage. This is an excellent suggestion.

As regards ophthalmia neonatorum, this is usually due to infection of the eyes of the infant from the mother during birth. The success of its treatment depends on its early recognition and proper treatment. This depends on the knowledge and skill of the midwife or the medical attendant, and this again depends on their proper training—and next on the provision of an adequate midwifery service. It would be a good thing if lectures could be arranged for practising midwives

at the various Eye Hospitals and opportunity given to them to see the cases treated there. Constant skilled treatment is essential in these cases, and at present there is no doubt that the ideal arrangement is for the mother and the baby to be transferred to hospital. The taking of these very young babies up to the hospital every day in all weathers, often to wait in a draughty passage for some time for their turn, is not desirable, though it may be the only alternative at the moment. It is certainly inadvisable and harmful to take the baby away from the mother at this early age, which necessitates the weaning of the child, thus lessening its prospects of recovery. At present there is not sufficient hospital accommodation to receive all mothers and affected babies, but it is very important that this should be provided, at any rate in all large towns. It would seem to be better to arrange for accommodation at existing hospitals rather than to form special hospitals, which would probably be looked upon with suspicion as venereal hospitals and the patients going there labelled accordingly.

The next disease of the eyes which concerns us is that known as Phlyctenular Ophthalmia. Though this does not lead to actual blindness, it may lead to serious diminution in sight if neglected and severe, and also to much loss of schooling, as it affects children of all ages. This is a disease which one hardly ever sees in private practice. I can remember only two cases in twenty years, and I remember them because they are so rare.

But in hospital practice these cases are fairly common, more so in some parts of the country than others, and the places where they are bred are the overcrowded slums and the poorest districts. This would seem to indicate that insufficient fresh air and poor, insufficient or unsuitable food have at any rate a very important relation to the complaint. Another argument in support of this is the fact that even country children rapidly improve when taken into hospital, and the reason is not nearly so much in the local treatment administered, as in the proper management and feeding of the children. I have known many cases get well rapidly in hospital, but a very short time after returning home they have come back into hospital. This goes on for two or three years, leading to loss of education, damaged eyesight and consequent loss of earning power later in life. The preventive treatment is again very difficult, as it means the clearing out of the slum areas, combating overcrowding and building new houses. But the education of the parents with regard to fresh air and wholesome plain feeding is very important. It really costs no more to provide suitable food than to give the patients chocolate or sweets to comfort them in their discomfort. These children spend the greater part of the day with their faces buried in a cushion on account of the photophobia (or fear of light) and are never sent out of doors. All sorts of domestic remedies are applied, all tending to exaggerate the condition, when what is required

is cleanliness, the child out of doors all day with a good shade over both eyes to protect the eyes from light, and good plain food. These are cases in which extra milk or butter, if procurable, are very helpful. In parts of the country where it is very prevalent hospital treatment should be provided and, if possible, special education too.

The next disease we meet is Interstitial Keratitis. This, again, chiefly affects children of school age. In about 95 per cent. of the cases this disease is due to hereditary syphilis, it practically always involves both eyes, though there is often an interval before the second eye is attacked. In severe cases, blindness may be the result, and in all there is some defect of vision left, often gross. The attack lasts the best part of a year as a rule, so it often means the child is incapacitated for about two years and is left with a serious defect of vision, especially as it is often associated with damage in the interior of the eye. To obviate this disease again, one comes back to the prevention or proper treatment of venereal disease in the parents; anti-syphilitic treatment has very little, if any, effect on the disease when once it starts.

The next condition to be considered is Myopia, or short sight. There are two important varieties of this trouble, one the so-called malignant or rapidly progressive myopia, and the milder more ordinary form, often called "school" myopia. The former may lead to blindness or, if not, to a more or less incapacitating degree of defective

short sight. Please note the title the latter form has earned for itself. I shall refer to this again.

The malignant or pernicious myopia is a very serious condition for, not only does the short sight rapidly increase to a tremendous degree, but, later, changes occur in the retina and choroid which further damage the sight. There is the very great risk of the occurrence of detached retina leading to complete blindness, and as both eyes are affected the seriousness of the condition is obvious. Fortunately this disease is uncommon. In these cases all close work must cease and education must be done through the ears and not through the eyes. Pernicious myopia often starts at an early age and possibly has progressed some way before the children are first tested at school. If a young child is found to be poking its nose into things and at the same time obviously defective at a distance, e.g., not recognising its parents across the street, it should at once be taken for examination. These children are quite unfit for ordinary education, and the only possible chance is for them to attend what is known as a Myope class. Such classes have now been started in most of the large towns, but at present there are none, I believe, in any country district. One realises the difficulty, as these cases are not common and there may be, scattered about a large country area, only two or three cases. The moving of these children away from home for education purposes is very difficult. The other alternative is for some teachers to be trained in

the management of these cases by sending them to work in a Myope school for a short time. *Vide—*Report of British Council of Ophthalmologists given at the end.

It is hardly necessary to emphasize the importance of all schools having good lighting, well printed books and a maximum of oral instruction, with the early testing of the vision of the scholars, so that errors of refraction may be corrected.

As regards the so-called "school" myopia, this is not such a serious condition as the pernicious myopia, but at the same time, if neglected, it may lead to a serious amount of short sight, with its consequent disability. It starts rather later, somewhere about the age of 10-12, and progresses usually during the age of growth and education and then comes to a standstill. Eye strain and bad light are contributory causes, and the onset of the trouble often dates from the time when the child starts growing very rapidly, with a tendency to outgrow its strength. At the same time it is using its eyes hard at school. Personally I think there is no doubt that the long hours of evening preparation, which some schools inflict on their pupils after a fairly strenuous day's work, are responsible for much of the increase that occurs in short sight. It is important that particular care should be taken with these children to see that they do their work in a good light, that the print of their book is good, that they are not allowed to poke into their work, but sit up to it properly, and that the evening work is reduced to

a minimum. If they have been using their eyes practically all day at school they should not be allowed to read when the necessary preparation has been done. Reading should be limited if necessary, but they should be encouraged to play games such as draughts, chess or cards, and kept away from books until the holidays, when their eyes are not being used so much. Reading by fire light and in bed should be prohibited. The sight should be tested regularly and at fairly frequent intervals to see that the child's glasses are still correcting it properly and, if the vision has deteriorated, they should be seen by the school oculist to have them corrected up.

Once the school age has passed, danger from ordinary myopia has usually ceased.

Accidents.

In young adult life accidents or type of occupation are the most frequent causes of blindness ; this is largely a technical question for factory inspectors, and the recommendation of suitable goggles for protection of the eyes and the adequate protection of machinery, etc., and I do not propose to go into it.

There is one occupation, however, that of farm labourer, which is not inspected and looked after. Living as I do in the centre of an agricultural district, one is struck by the number of eyes lost in hedge-cutting accidents. The man chops at a thorn twig and fails to cut it. It flies back and hits him in the eye, one of the thorns often pene-

trating into the interior of the eye and frequently causing a traumatic cataract. A few years ago when there was a hedge-cutting competition organised, I believe, by one of the local hunts, we had about ten cases of traumatic cataract from hedging injuries in at the same time. Many of these eyes are lost, and in all the sight is seriously and permanently damaged. Not only is traumatic cataract caused by hedging, but another condition, known as sloughing ulcer of the cornea, is of frequent occurrence. Both accidents often lead to blindness of one eye and, occasionally, from the occurrence of sympathetic ophthalmia, to total blindness.

As life goes on, the next dangerous period is reached somewhere about 40 to 50. It is about this time, or possibly rather later, that a certain disease known as Glaucoma is apt to arise.

There are two kinds of glaucoma, acute and chronic. The former is in little danger of being overlooked. It comes on acutely with intense pain in the head and face, vomiting and rapid loss of sight. The only risk of these cases is that, curiously enough, the loss of sight is apt to be overlooked and the patient retires to bed with intense pain in the head and sickness. In consequence the room is darkened and the patient herself and her friends diagnose it as a case of influenza. It is only on the pain passing off after about a week and the blinds being pulled up that the patient suddenly becomes conscious that she cannot see with one eye. I have known several

cases of this nature, though one would think it almost impossible to happen.

Chronic glaucoma, on the other hand, is a most insidious disease, and comes on without the subject being in any way conscious of it. It causes no appreciable loss of sight for some time, as the apparent loss starts at the edge of what is known as the field of vision and actual central vision may be the last thing to be lost. The patient may have the sort of sight one gets if looking through a small tube, or possibly one half may be almost lost before anything amiss is noticed. It is this disease perhaps above all others that makes it so important to go for glasses to a properly qualified medical man, trained in ophthalmic surgery, or to an eye hospital, and not to a shop, or so-called qualified optician, optometrist, refractionist or other high sounding title. One of the few symptoms which sometimes shows itself is that the patients require a frequent strengthening of their glasses, and if they simply go to a shop and buy them, or are provided with them by an optician, the favourable time for treatment will probably be passed. There is no doubt that every one should be properly tested for glasses ; it is really not safe to trust to luck where one's eyes are concerned.

I do not want to be unfair to the optician. Many are conscientious men, who refer such cases to an eye specialist, but others are not so reliable.

Cataract, another of the diseases which affect elderly people, is, unfortunately, not a preventable

disease. All attempts at medicinal treatment, local drops, injections or ointments and the use of special strong glasses do not, and cannot, cure cataract. Strong glasses may be of great use in enabling a patient with many cataractous changes in the lens to see reading which they are no longer able to see with their ordinary glasses, but this is a very different thing from the curing of the cataract. One hears all sorts of wonderful stories about the cure of cataracts by "quacks" by the use of glasses, but when you realise that a cataract is an opaque lens in the eye, I think you will agree that it is impossible to render this again transparent by putting a glass in front of it.

Another cause of blindness in old age is disease of the blood vessels of the eye, causing hæmorrhages and degeneration of the optic nerve and retina. This disease, known as Arterio-Sclerosis, with its attendant high blood pressure, is common in this age of rush and worry. It almost always shows signs in the retina, which are visible with the ophthalmoscope, even in the earlier stages. The attention of the medical man is thus drawn to this condition in time for precautionary measures to be adopted to stop the trouble increasing. This again is another strong argument against going to a shop to buy spectacles—when the condition will certainly be overlooked and once more the favourable time for treatment, when the trouble might be arrested, will be missed.

Well, to sum up my remarks, to prevent blindness, perhaps the most urgent problems are :—

(1) The prevention and proper treatment of venereal disease.

(2) The adequate training and supply of properly qualified midwives and further education of medical men in diseases of the eye.

(3) The clearing out of slum areas and spread of education amongst the poorer classes as to how to bring up their children.

(4) The provision of suitable educational facilities for children with myopia and defective eyesight.

(5) To teach people not to go to a shop to buy a pair of spectacles.

The Council of British Ophthalmologists has recently published its report on the methods adopted in various parts of the British Isles for the education of children suffering from defective vision due to myopia or other causes (excluding the blind).

At the end of their report the Council remarks that, with few notable exceptions, the provision for the education of affected children is seriously inadequate. They say that it is obvious that in country districts where the number of defective sighted children is insufficient to form special classes, some provision should be made either to send them to one of those classes in the nearest town, or for their teacher to receive instruction in their management, and I must say, personally, I should think the latter suggestion the most practical. The recommendations of the Council are the following:—

(1) Children with defective sight should be

examined periodically by an ophthalmic surgeon, who should prescribe the necessary treatment and educational regime.

(2) In all large centres of population special classes should be established for children with such defective sight as renders them unsuitable for ordinary school education. These classes should be associated with the ordinary elementary schools, and limited to a nominal roll of twenty children to each class.

(3) In country districts when there are not sufficient children to form a "myope class," instruction should be given to teachers and parents on the education and management of children with defective sight.

Parents and Local Care Committees should receive advice as to the choice of occupation for the children on leaving school.

CHAPTER XV

BIBLIOGRAPHY

THE following list of books of-reference, pamphlets and reports includes books about the various home occupations contained in the examination syllabus. The list is given in the hope that it will be of use, not only to readers who contemplate taking the examination, but also to others who are engaged in work connected with the welfare of the blind. The books, etc., are grouped under appropriate headings arranged alphabetically and after the title or description of each item there follows the author's name (if any), the name of the publisher and the price. A list of publishers' addresses is given at the end.

ACTS OF PARLIAMENT.

- Blind Persons Act, 1920. H.M. Stationery Office. 1d.
 Education Act, 1921. (Sections 61 to 69 inclusive.)
 H.M. Stationery Office. 1s.
 Wireless Telegraphy (Blind Persons Facilities) Act,
 1926. H.M. Stationery Office. 3d.

ANNUITIES TO THE BLIND.

- An account of Charities giving Recurrent Assistance
 to the Blind. Fourth Edition corrected to 1910.
 By the late Edmund C. Johnson. Longmans Green
 & Co. 5s.

BLIND OLD AGE PENSIONS.

- Summary of the Law and Regulations relative to
 Old Age Pensions and Blind Persons. Leaflet D.
 Obtainable free at any Post Office.

BRAILLE.

How to Learn to Read (in Giant Type). National Institute for the Blind. 8d.

Braille Primer, Grade I. National Institute for the Blind. 1s.

Braille Primer, Grade II. National Institute for the Blind. 1s.

Revised Braille for Reading and Writing, Grade II. National Institute for the Blind. 2d.

CAUSES AND PREVENTION OF BLINDNESS.

Departmental Committee's Report. H.M. Stationery Office. 4s.

CHAIR CANING.

"How to Recane a Chair Seat." Pamphlet 16 of Dryad Handicrafts, Ltd. 4d.

"Chair Caning." By A. G. Knock. National Institute for the Blind. 9d. (In Braille.)

The Knock Chair Caning Instruction Frame. 4s. Sold by the National Institute for the Blind for use with "Chair Caning," by A. G. Knock.

CHARITIES FOR THE BLIND.

Regulations made by the Charity Commissioners and approved by the Ministry of Health, 10th September, 1920, under the Blind Persons Act. H.M. Stationery Office. 3d.

DEFINITIONS OF BLINDNESS.

Circular 681, dated 29th March, 1926, Ministry of Health. H.M. Stationery Office. 2d.

Circular 780, dated 27th April, 1927, Ministry of Health. H.M. Stationery Office. 1d.

GENERAL INFORMATION.

Handbook on the Welfare of the Blind. Ministry of Health Advisory Committee. H.M. Stationery Office. 6d.

Information about Institutions, Societies and Classes for the Blind in the United Kingdom. Gardner's Trust, 53, Victoria Street, Westminster. 1s. 3d. (1s. 6d. by post).

Circular 387, relative to co-operation between Training and Employing Agencies with regard to Blind Persons, dated 24th April, 1923, Ministry of Health. H.M. Stationery Office. 1d.

GRANTS OF THE MINISTRY OF HEALTH.

See under "Regulations."

HAND KNITTING.

Universal Knitting Book. John Paton, Son & Co. 6d.
Knitting Patterns selected from "Needlecraft."
National Institute for the Blind. 2s. 6d. (In Braille.)

HOME TEACHERS CERTIFICATE EXAMINATION.

Syllabus and Regulations. College and Association
of Teachers of the Blind. National Institute for
the Blind. 3d.

Home Teachers Certificate Examination. Questions
set at Examinations held from 1923 to 1927 inclusive.
From the Registrar, College of Teachers, National
Institute for the Blind. 1s. 1d. per post.

MOON.

Giant Lesson Book. National Institute for the Blind.
6d.

NATIONAL HEALTH AND PENSIONS INSURANCE.

Leaflet 31 on National Health Insurance.

Pamphlet "A" on the Duties of Employers in
National Health and Pensions Insurance.

Pamphlet 1 on Pensions Insurance.

Obtainable free from Ministry of Health.

NETTING.

Weldon's Practical Netting (Fifth Series). Weldon's,
Ltd. 3d.

PENSION SOCIETIES FOR THE BLIND.

See under "General Information" for Gardner's
Trust Handbook (pages 30-53).

PULP CANE WORK.

"Cane Work." By Charles Crampton. Dryad
Handicrafts, Ltd. 4s.

"Cane Work on Simple Frames." By Charles
Crampton. Dryad Handicrafts, Ltd. 1s. 6d.

"Willow Basket Making." By T. Okey. Pitman
& Sons. 5s.

"The Cultivation of Osiers and Willows," Ministry
of Agriculture. H.M. Stationery Office. 1s. 6d.

RAFFIA WORK.

Raffia Work." By A. H. Bowers. Pitman & Sons.
5s.

Weldon's Practical Raffia Basketry." Weldon's,
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"Indian Basket Work." By Isabel Otty. Arnolds.
4s.

REGISTRATION OF BLIND PERSONS.

Memo 64 B/D, dated 31st March, 1922, as to Registration, Augmentation and Provision of Employment. H.M. Stationery Office. 2d.

REGULATIONS OF THE MINISTRY OF HEALTH.

Circular, dated 7th August, 1919, governing Grants in Aid of the Welfare of the Blind. H.M. Stationery Office. 3d.

REPORTS OF THE ADVISORY COMMITTEE ON THE WELFARE OF THE BLIND.

First Report, 1918—19. 9d.

Second „ 1919—20. 6d.

Third „ 1921—22. 6d.

Fourth „ 1922—23. 6d.

Fifth „ 1923—24. 6d.

Sixth „ 1924—26. 9d.

First Report of Scottish Advisory Committee. Scottish Board of Health, Edinburgh. Free.

Second Report of Scottish Advisory Committee. 1s.

Third Report of Scottish Advisory Committee. 6d.
H.M. Stationery Office.

RUG MAKING.

Bestway Third Rug Book (Turkey Wool), No. 104. 6d.

Bestway Second Rug Book (Cable Wool), No. 103. 6d.

RUSH SEATING.

“Rush Seating.” By A. G. Knock. Article in “The Beacon,” of July, 1924, and in Braille, in “Progress.” National Institute for the Blind.

“Seating Stools with Sea Grass.” Dryad Handicrafts, Ltd. 6d.

“Rush Work.” Dryad Handicrafts, Ltd. 1s. 6d.

SCHEMES OF LOCAL AUTHORITIES UNDER BLIND PERSONS ACT.

Memorandum 27 B/D as to what such scheme should contain. H.M. Stationery Office. 2d.

SCHOOLS, ETC., FOR THE BLIND.

List (42) of Certified Special Schools and Recognised Schools for the Training of the Blind. Board of Education. H.M. Stationery Office. 1s.

STRAW BAG MAKING.

“Varied Occupations in Weaving.” By Louisa Walker. Macmillans. 3s. 6d.

STRING BAG MAKING.

Instructions in the Use of the Circular Knitting Frame. (In Braille.) National Institute for the Blind. 6d.

Rapid Frame Netting Instruction Book. By Mrs. Hibbert. Cox & Co. 9d.

TRAINING AND EDUCATION.

Board of Education (Special Services) Regulations, No. 19. H.M. Stationery Office. 4d.

UNEMPLOYMENT INSURANCE.

Leaflet U.I.L. 4. Summary of the Unemployment Insurance Acts.

Leaflet U.I.L. 8. As to Claims and Conditions of Benefit.

Obtainable free at any Employment Exchange.

PUBLISHERS' ADDRESSES.

E. J. Arnold & Son, Ltd., Butterley Street, Leeds.

College and Association of Teachers of the Blind,
c/o National Institute for the Blind, 224, Great
Portland Street, London, W.1.

Cox & Co., New Oxford Street, London.

Dryad Handicrafts, Ltd., Leicester.

Longmans Green & Co., 39, Paternoster Row, London.

Macmillan & Co., Ltd., St. Martin's Street, London.

National Institute for the Blind, 224, Great Portland
Street, London, W.1.

John Paton, Son & Co., Alloa, N.B.

Sir Isaac Pitman & Sons, Parker Street, Kingsway,
London, W.C.2.

H.M. Stationery Office :

Adastral House, Kingsway, London, W.C.2.

120, George Street, Edinburgh.

York Street, Manchester.

1, St. Andrew's Crescent, Cardiff.

15, Donegall Square West, Belfast.

Weldon's, Ltd., 30, Southampton Street, London,
W.C.2.

Articles of practical value to Home Teachers appear from time to time in *The Teacher of the Blind*, the organ of The College and Association of Teachers of the Blind, price 4s. post free per annum. Orders may be sent to Miss K. CRAMP, 40, Shaftesbury Road, Coventry.

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